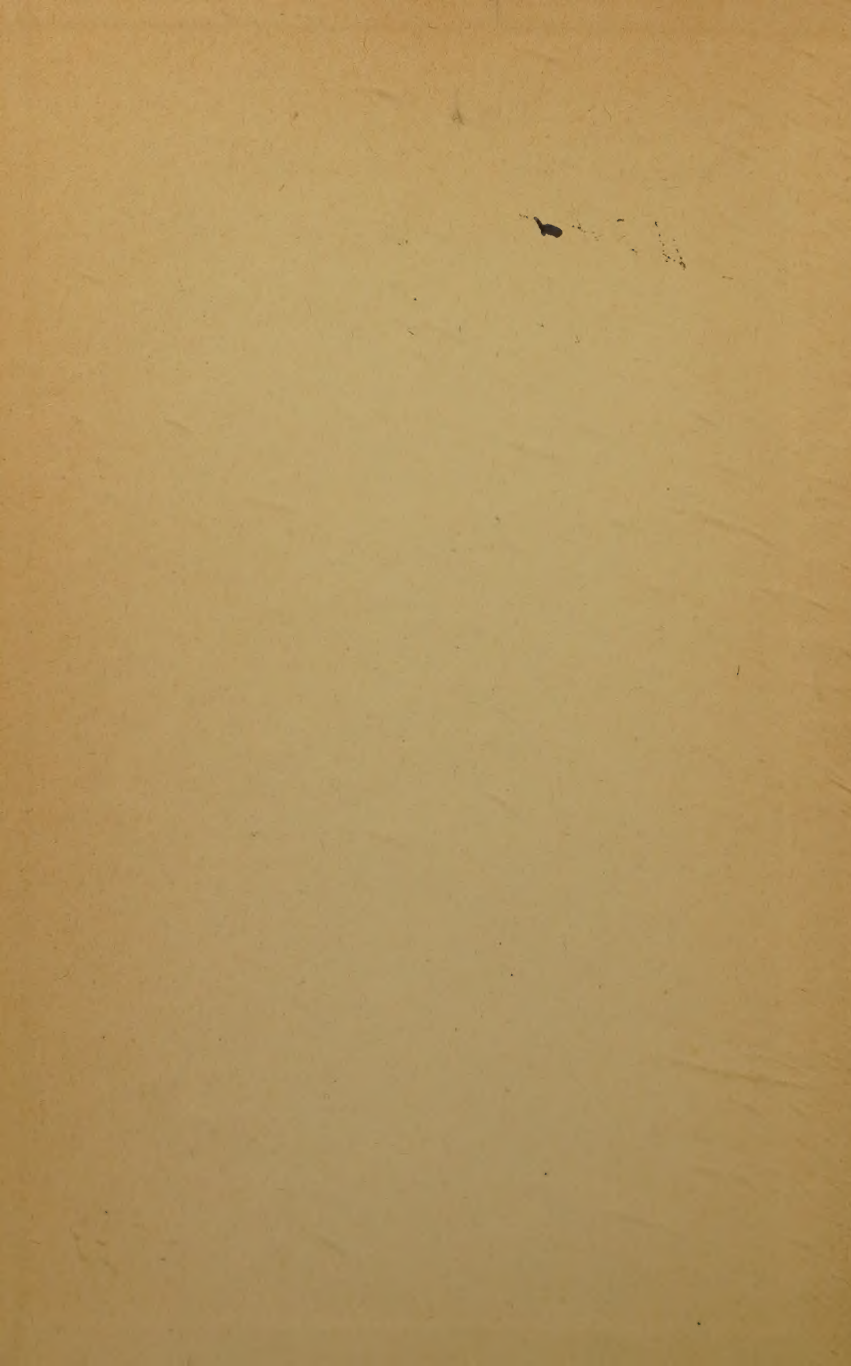




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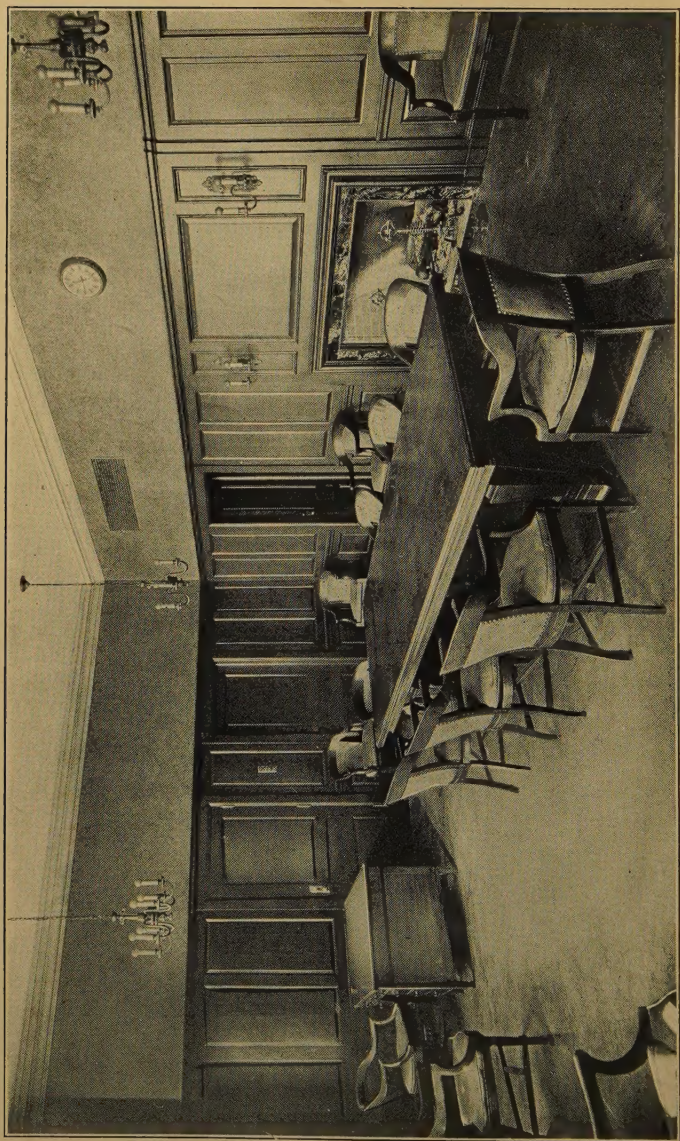
E. H. Staffelbach.

San Jose.

**RIVERSIDE TEXTBOOKS
IN EDUCATION**

EDITED BY ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

**DEAN OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY**



A WELL-ARRANGED SCHOOL BOARD ROOM

Asbury Park, New Jersey. Showing how board and superintendent meet about one table to consider school matters.

PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

A STATEMENT OF THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES
UNDERLYING THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION
OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

BY

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

DEAN OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

Revised and Enlarged Edition



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PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

THIS work, as first published in 1916, was a volume of 479 pages, which then seemed large for an educational textbook. In 1922, all statistical data were revised, a few of the chapters were added to, some minor changes were made here and there, and the book was expanded some dozen pages in size. The volume remained, however, essentially the original book, and the fact that it has seen thirteen years of use as a college text in practically the original form has been a source of much satisfaction to both the publishers and the author.

The present edition, unlike that of 1922, represents an almost complete remaking of the book. With a few exceptions the chapters have been rewritten and expanded, and much new material added. Five new chapters have been included, and one old chapter removed. Many of the illustrations have been changed, and more new ones added than the original volume contained. In the teaching material at the close of the chapters, many additional questions for class discussion have been inserted, the list of topics for investigation and report has been enlarged, and a series of practical problems to be worked and written out have been appended, for the first time. The bibliographies at the end of the chapters have been entirely reconstructed, old references being removed and much new material added. The third edition then represents virtually a new book, though naturally the basic structure of the old book is present.

In making this revision, four chapters have been added to Part I to round out more completely the outlines of state educational organization there presented, and to make the

volume more of a general textbook on public school administration in all its phases — state, county, and city. Part II then shows how the cities have grappled with and handled the problems of educational organization with which they have been faced, while Part III, as before, applies this city experience to the problems of state and county educational organization and administration.

In its present form the volume becomes a general textbook on public school organization and administration, as its title indicates it to be, and teachers of school administration who desire to cover the field in one course will find the present revision especially useful. For those who wish to offer separate courses on state and on city school administration, as our larger institutions do and should, the author's recent textbook on *State School Administration* covers the field of the first, while Part II of the present volume still covers the second reasonably well. In conjunction with two of his colleagues, the present author hopes to offer, before long, a more extended textbook on *City School Administration* alone which will form a companion volume to the one on *State School Administration* recently issued.

As the Preface to the original edition states well the character of the volume now issued in revised and expanded form, it is included in this edition, and follows.

If this new edition receives the generous welcome given to the original edition, the author will feel well repaid for the labor spent upon it.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

AN attempt has been made, in the space of this book, to state the fundamental principles underlying the proper organization and administration of public education in the United States; to state briefly the historical evolution of the principal administrative officers and problems; and to point out what seem to be the most probable lines of future evolution.

To do this, and to make a satisfactory textbook on school administration in so short a space, naturally required much condensation and the employment of a number of economies in presentation. In the body of the chapters these fundamental principles have been stated, often somewhat positively. At the same time an attempt has been made to base the statements on such well-established principles of action, tested by experience, and so to reinforce the presentation made in the body of the chapters by footnote extracts and suggestions as to supplemental reading, as will make the book a serviceable text for use in colleges and normal schools giving courses in educational administration. It is hoped also that the volume may prove useful, as an organization of principles, to supervisory officers of all kinds in service in our schools.

The book has naturally centered about the administration of city school systems, simply because almost all of the great recent progress in organization, administration, supervision, and adaptation to needs has taken place there. By showing the origin and relationship of all forms of educational activity to the state purpose, as has been done in Part I, and by applying the results of the administrative ex-

perience of our cities to county and state educational organization and administration, as has been done in Part III, the author has tried to present, in one volume, the essential principles governing proper educational control for all types of public-school work — city, county, and state.

In making the statement of principles of action the author has sought to avoid what seems to him to be the common defect of most of the books on school administration so far produced, and that is such a nice balancing of arguments that the book is practically colorless. He has also tried to avoid the production of a book of mere facts and figures. Such facts can be obtained without difficulty, and as needed from public-school documents. Instead, he has endeavored to make a book containing such a clear statement of fundamental principles that either the lay reader or the student, on finishing it, shall know what ought to be done, and why. To give a student ideals for his work, and to establish in his mind proper principles of action, has always seemed to the writer an essential part of any course on public-school administration.

To make the book more useful to students in classes, a large number of questions for discussion, and topics for investigation and report, have been added to each of the chapters. These will serve to give concreteness to the presentation, and will enable students and instructor to question and discuss the principles laid down in the text. In the footnote extracts, opinions by representative thinkers and practical workers have been given by way of backing up the arguments presented in the text. In the bibliographies at the end of the chapters the author has shunned the common practice of adding a large and unclassified list of references, good, bad, and indifferent, leaving the student to grope his way through them. Instead, a list of selected references has been given and these have been classified as to content

and value, and only the best of those most likely to be accessible in the smaller libraries have been cited. The aim has been to guide the student to a small number of easily accessible articles on each topic, written by those who have contributed most to its discussion.

The administration of public education centers about the work of three persons. The first of these is the class-room teacher, in the conduct and management of a single school. The second is the school principal, in the organization, administration, and supervision of a single building, or perhaps a group of buildings. The third of these is the superintendent of schools, in the organization, administration, and supervision of a group of schools. The principles underlying the successful work of the first constitute what is commonly known as classroom management, on which a volume is now in preparation for this series under the title of *Classroom Organization and Control*. The second will be presented in another future volume on *The Principal and His School*. The present volume represents the third part of such a course in school administration, and is in effect a digest of what the author has for some years given at the university with which he is connected. Part II of this volume also covers the substance of a course of lectures on "City School Administration" given at Teachers College, Columbia University, during the summer session of 1914.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

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PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION



PART I

OUTLINES OF
STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION



CHAPTER I

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOLS

Early attitudes. Everywhere, with us, the school arose as a distinctively local institution, and to meet local needs. The Federal Constitution made no mention of any form of education for the people, nor does the subject occur in the debates of the Federal Constitutional Convention. By the terms of the Tenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution,¹ ratified in 1791, education became one of the many unmentioned powers "reserved to the States."

Of the fourteen state constitutions framed by 1800, six made no mention whatever of schools or education, and in a number of the others the mention was very brief and indefinite.² Nothing which could be regarded as even the beginnings of a state system or series of systems of education existed. Nine colleges,³ a few private secondary schools, and a number of private and church schools offering some elementary-school instruction of an indifferent character, constituted the educational resources of the new Nation. Even in New England, where a good beginning had

¹ "ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."

² See Cubberley and Elliott: *State and County School Administration*, vol. II, *Source Book*, pp. 12-17.

³ Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Princeton, Pennsylvania, Columbia, Brown, Rutgers, and Dartmouth. Thirteen additional colleges were founded between 1776 and 1800.

been made in the seventeenth century, the educational enthusiasm of the people had largely died out and the schools had sadly degenerated. In the rural districts, where the great bulk of our people then lived, there were practically no schools of any kind, while in the towns and cities ignorance, vagrancy, and pauperism went hand in hand.

Schools at first community undertakings. For some decades after the establishment of our Republic this condition and attitude continued. The apprentice system and the school of experience, rather than the school of books, ministered to the needs of the people of the time. We were a simple and a homogeneous people, devoted chiefly to a subsistence type of agriculture; the old aristocratic conception of education still prevailed; and there was little in the political, economic, or social life of the time which made education at public expense seem important.

When schools began to be established in the villages and the rising cities, early in the nineteenth century, they were at first largely private undertakings, though, not infrequently, aided by some form of public support. Sometimes the people of a community built a schoolhouse and then permitted a teacher to conduct a private school in it, and later on the school was taken over and made a public school.¹ In still other cases the first schools were distinctively voluntary community undertakings, owing their origin and maintenance to the voluntary action and contributions of the parents who sent their children to them. In still other cases the first of the early schools were established as public schools in response to direct legislative permission, though many of these were at first only subsidized

¹ In Buffalo, for example, a schoolhouse was built privately in 1806. This was burned in 1813, and in 1818 the town levied a tax to rebuild the school, but city maintenance and control did not come for some years thereafter.

private schools, and the "rate-bill" — a *per-capita* tax levied on the parents of the children attending — was for years used to supplement the tax levied by the community for their support. Many of the city school systems in the territory north of the Ohio and the Potomac and east of the Mississippi trace their origin from some one of these forms of early community endeavor.¹

The district unit. These early community efforts show how natural it was that the school district should have become the unit for educational organization. Though the town to the eastward and the congressional township in the new States to the westward were early made the unit for civil administration, such areas soon proved unsuited to the school needs of the early pioneer, and, as the schools developed, the smaller and irregular school district, rather than the town or the township, became the unit for educational organization and administration.

As a unit for school organization the community district was well suited to the somewhat primitive needs of the time. Wherever half a dozen families lived near enough together to make organization possible, they were permitted, by the early laws, to meet together and vote to form a school district and organize and maintain a school. Districts could be formed anywhere, of any size and shape, and only those families or communities desiring schools need be included in the district organization. The simplicity and the democracy of the plan made a strong appeal. Communi-

¹ In Cincinnati, private-venture schools existed before 1800; in 1817 a private Lancastrian school was opened; and in 1818 a wealthy banker left a bequest of \$1000 a year "for a charity school." It was not until 1825 that a public-school system was organized.

In Chicago, on the sale of the school lands in 1833, grants were made, until 1844, to the teachers of the existing private schools, who in turn certified attendance to the public-school trustees. The first city school-house was not built until 1845.

ties desiring schools and willing to pay taxes for them could organize and maintain them; communities not desiring them or unwilling to support them could let them alone.

Evolution of district organization. Organized at first only where there were settlements, in time all the area of a county, and eventually of a State, came to be included in some school district. The evolution of districts is well shown in the illustrations on this and the following page.

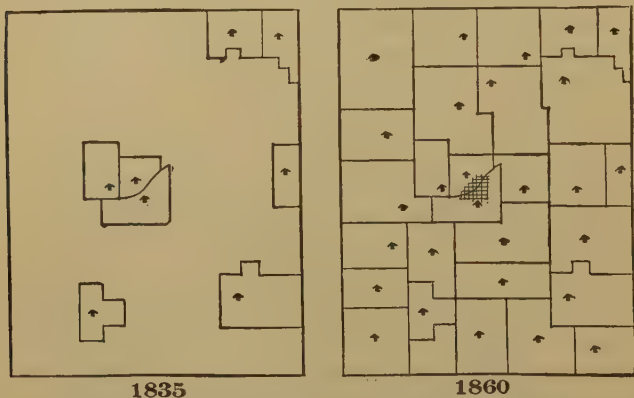


FIG. 1. EARLY ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS

These show the process of district formation within a county. At first, during its period of settlement, only a portion of the county was organized into school districts; later on, all was so organized, and towns, with their graded school systems, began to develop. Still later, the increase of population led to the development of a central county-seat city and two towns along the line of the new railway, and to a subdivision of nearly all the larger rural districts; and, still later, the changes in the distribution of the population have led to the abandonment of some of the district organizations, the consolidation of eight others into one

rural and consolidated school, and a very material enlargement of the school system of the central city and the two towns.

The process illustrated here is typical of the evolution which has taken place in all parts of the United States, and

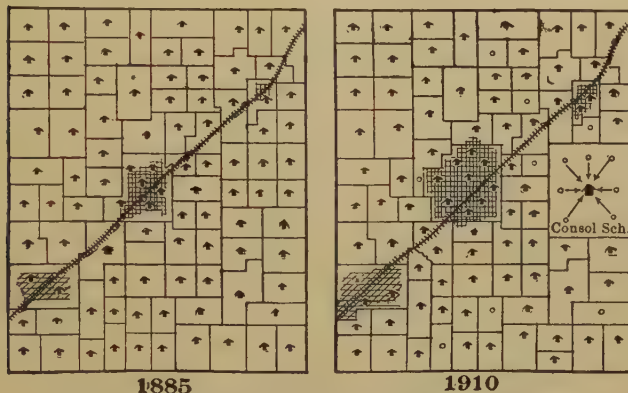


FIG. 2. LATER ORGANIZATION AND REORGANIZATION

it held true for the rising cities as well as for the county districts. In many of the early cities a school was established first in one ward, and later in others, and finally these ward or district organizations were consolidated into one city school system, with a representative school board elected from the different city wards.

Early district officers. Each school district, once legally organized, became "a body politic and corporate," and possessed of certain legal powers. For the government of the school created, members of the community, usually three in number, were elected by the people as district school trustees, and they, guided by the people in the annual and special school-district meetings, managed the schools as best they knew. As a simple and democratic means for

providing schools for the children of people living under somewhat primitive pioneer conditions, and at a time when education at public expense had not been accepted generally by our people, the district system rendered a useful service. In the days before modern school systems were developed, when there were no courses of study, no supervisory officers, no sanitary regulations, and almost no organized body of school law or pedagogical knowledge, these local representatives handled the schools in a manner which gave reasonable satisfaction to the people they represented. So well was the district unit adapted to the educational needs of an earlier and more primitive society that it has, in many of our States, persisted to the present, though most of the conditions which gave rise to it and gave it its earlier importance have since largely passed away.

Rise of state systems. In time, the national land-grants for public schools, which began with Ohio in 1802, came to exert a stimulating effect on the new States to the west of the Allegheny Mountains. The different States early provided for the election or appointment of trustees to care for the school-section lands, and, after permission to sell them had been granted by Congress,¹ to see that the proceeds were husbanded and the income properly spent. The creation of the so-called "Literary Funds" was also begun by the older States to the east. The permanent school fund of Delaware dates from 1796; that of New York from 1805; of Virginia, from 1810; of Maryland, from 1812; of New Jersey, from 1816; of Georgia, from 1817; of New Hampshire, from 1821; of North Carolina, from 1825; Pennsylvania, from 1831; and of Massachusetts, from 1834.

It was some little time, however, before the demand for

¹ First granted by Congress to Ohio in 1826, followed by permission to Alabama in 1827, Indiana in 1828, and Arkansas, Illinois, Louisiana, and Tennessee in 1843.

a system of public schools, to supplement and in part displace the private, charity, and church schools of the time, made itself felt. The simple agricultural life, the homogeneity of the people, the isolation and independence of the villages, the hard life of the time, and the absence of important political questions to be settled at the polls made the need for schools and learning a relatively minor one. It was not until after about 1820 that the development of manufacturing, the extension of manhood suffrage, the action of the labor unions, the rise of the many humanitarian movements, and the introduction of the Lancastrian system of instruction began to awaken a demand for public tax-supported schools, under the authority and partial support of the State. The "charity-school" conception of education, under which free tuition was to be provided only to the children of the deserving poor; the plan of turning education over to the churches and religious societies, with some aid from the public purse; and the earlier aristocratic idea that education was an individual rather than a public matter — all these makeshift plans had to be dealt with and eliminated. Gradually, however, the people of the different States were converted to the idea of adopting public education as a state function, and State after State then began to provide for tax-supported schools.

Early permissive laws. The first permanent law for the organization of schools in the State of New York was enacted in 1812; New Jersey first provided for the education of pauper children in 1820, and created schools for all in 1838; Ohio first authorized taxation for education in 1821, and the law of 1825 made the real beginning of a school system for the State; Delaware's first free-school law dates from 1821; the first school law in Illinois dates from 1825; Baltimore began schools in 1825, and Maryland enacted an optional school-organization law in 1826; Rhode Island

first organized schools in 1828, though the city of Providence had organized schools as early as 1800 and Newport had provided for its pauper children in 1825; Philadelphia was permitted to organize free schools in 1816, though the first Pennsylvania school law dates from 1834; the creation of the Massachusetts State Board of Education in 1837 made the beginnings of state oversight and control for that State, and greatly stimulated schools there and in neighboring States; North Carolina enacted an optional county school-organization law in 1839; and the Indiana school system really dates from 1849, though the first permissive law goes back to 1824.

Many of the cities began schools at about the same time. The public school system of Cincinnati dates from 1825; Chicago's first public school, from 1832; Pittsburgh's school system, from 1835; Cleveland's, from 1836; Buffalo's, from 1837; Detroit's and New York City's, from 1842; while Washington did not free itself from the pauper-school idea until after 1844. In most of the smaller cities and villages free public schools did not begin until after they had been ordered established by the school law of the State.

The battle for the establishment of tax-supported public schools was a bitter one, but after about 1850 it had been won in every Northern State. The new States to the westward all inaugurated a free public educational system, as a part of the State's public service to its citizens, either at the time of their creation as States or during the previous territorial period. In the Southern States, with two or three exceptions, little was accomplished until after the Civil War and the period of Reconstruction were over.

Many of the earliest state laws relating to education were purely permissive measures, enacted largely that the rising cities might begin a development that the rural districts were not as yet ready for. They merely granted to the

people of the different communities in the State the right to meet and form a school district, and to levy, legally, a property tax for schools. Such laws frequently merely permitted a change in form from private community effort to a legal organization under the authority of the State. Of such a nature were the first laws in Ohio, Indiana, and some other States.

Still other of these early laws were even more special, being, in effect, an authorization to certain specified cities within the State to form a public school system and to levy a tax for schools, but without granting such power to the other cities or to the State as a whole. Of such a nature were the early laws permitting the formation of public schools in Providence, Newport, and Philadelphia. After schools had been begun in the larger places under these permissive laws, legislation then was secured, though usually only after much argument and effort, requiring the establishment of schools throughout the State.

The change in attitude. Gradually, though but slowly, the state laws relating to schools were enlarged in scope, and a School Code for each of the States has been built up. The history of this gradual expansion of the educational system by the State, and the transference of powers, previously delegated, from district to township, township to county, and county to State, in the interests of better organization and more efficient administration, forms an interesting part of the story of our Nation's growth. To trace this change and transference would be to trace much of the story of our national development. From a collection of isolated villages and rural communities we have expanded to a large Nation, each part bound to all the other parts by close social, commercial, and political ties. New world-relationships have been developed, and the early isolation, and with it the early ideas as to great local impor-

tance, have, in large part, been swept away. New methods of transacting both public and private business have been introduced, and the need for larger units for the administration of the public's business has been made evident to practically all. New needs and new problems have arisen in our democratic life, for many of which education has been seen to be almost our only remedy.

Public education has thus gradually been established as a great state, one might also say a great national, interest. The principle that the wealth of the State must educate the children of the State has been firmly established. Sectarianism and the "charity-conception" have been eliminated. The compulsory attendance of children of school age is at last beginning to be enforced. The school term has been very materially lengthened, the course of instruction has been greatly enriched, new types of schools have been created, the methods of instruction have been changed and much improved, and an entirely new type of material equipment has been substituted. New forms of taxation have been ordered levied, new types of educational advantages have been ordered provided, and an entirely new type of teacher has been created for the schools. As a result of a century of evolution, the School Code of each of our States to-day represents an important historical development, and contains a large, important, and constantly expanding body of school law, while school legislation has become one of the important interests considered in each meeting of the legislature of the State.

The present conviction. As a result it may be stated to be, to-day, a settled conviction of the people of our different American States that the provision of a liberal system of free education for the children of the State is one of the most important duties of the State, and that such education contributes very markedly to the moral uplift of the

people, to a higher civic virtue, and to increased economic returns to the State. We of to-day conceive of free public education as a birthright of the child on the one hand, and as an exercise of the State's inherent right to self-preservation and improvement on the other. The children of to-day are the voters of to-morrow, and to prepare them well for their duties is both the obligation and the opportunity of the State. Each new generation of voters, so prepared, has in turn stood for an enlarged conception as to the need for, purpose, function, and scope of public education. In no other country have the people worked out so fully the purpose of making a system of public education good enough for rich and poor alike, and with equal opportunity for all, and in no other country have the results of generous popular education shown forth to better advantage in the general intelligence, poise, good judgment, and productive capacity of the people.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How do you explain the lack of any mention of education in the Constitution of the United States?
2. How do you account for education, which had been started well in early New England, being at such a low ebb at the time of the formation of the Union?
3. What do you understand to have been meant by "the charity-conception" of education?
4. What national developments have helped to change education from a private and personal matter to a general national undertaking?
5. In what ways have national changes altered the type of unit for school organization best suited to educational needs?
6. Show the place of permissive legislation in the transition period of the evolution of any new state function.
7. Explain the change from the religious to the political motive for maintaining schools.
8. Explain why we were so slow in developing a national consciousness as to education.

9. Why were we as a people so much more interested in colleges and academies, during the first half-century of our national existence, than in schools for the people?
10. Show how the development of cities made evident a need for new types of education.
11. Show how the retention of the pauper-school idea would have been dangerous to the life of the Republic.
12. Show how the change in our world relationships has changed public education into a national interest.
13. Try to establish a connection between the remarkable prosperity and progress of the American people and the wide diffusion of popular education among our people.

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CHAPTER II

STATE AUTHORIZATION AND CONTROL

The State the unit. In all of this development which we described in the preceding chapter, it should be noted that the authority and power to develop have come from the State, and not, except secondarily, from the community. This is an important point to be kept in mind. The school district, the township, the village, the city, and the county are all alike subordinate creations of the State, erected for the purpose of better local administration. The State creates these subdivisions of itself and then endows them with their powers, and these it may add to or subtract from, within the limits set by the constitution of the State, and as the best interests of the State may seem to require. It has been the people of the State as a whole, represented in the legislature of the State, and not portions of the people here and there, who have been supreme in the matter of educational legislation. Such has been the policy of practically every State, and such a policy has the support of practically all of the administrative experience relating to public instruction which we have accumulated since we began to adopt education as a proper function of the State.

The principle involved was so well stated by Secretary Hill, of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, in discussing the right of the State of Massachusetts to require every town in the State to be under the supervision of a properly qualified superintendent of schools, that his words are worth quoting here entire. He said:

In this matter of determining what is best for the welfare of the schools, it should not be forgotten that it is the people as a whole

who are supreme, and not portions of them here and there. It needs only an elementary acquaintance with the constitution of the State to satisfy one that in law the State is not the creation of the towns, but the towns rather of the State. The powers of the State are not derived from the towns, but those of the towns from the State. In other words, the people, without reference to towns existing at the time, or to possible towns thereafter, organized the State and fixed its authority. And ever since the State has been making towns and unmaking them, adding to their powers and subtracting from them, and in a thousand ways, within the limits of the original compact, showing its supremacy. This way of putting it, however, is suggestive of a despotism that does not really exist; for it needs to be repeated that the State is not an authority apart and different from the people of the towns, ruling them from a distance and insensitive to their interests. On the contrary, the State is an expression, by formal and solemn agreement, of the will of the people living in these very towns — the highest expression, indeed, the towns' people of the Commonwealth ever made of their civic aspirations and resolves. Whatever authority the town has over its schools, it has by direction and permission of the State; that is, by direction or permission of the people at large, of whom the people of the town are a part. Now, this view of the relation of the State to the towns and the schools, supported, as it is, by the constitution of the Commonwealth, should silence certain ill-considered talk that is heard when new legislation affecting the town is proposed, about the State's trespassing on town rights, usurping town privileges, establishing a central despotism, and all that. The fundamental thing about a State's power is that the State, within the terms of the constitution, can curtail, if it chooses, the rights of towns without trespass, withdraw privileges from them without usurpation, give them new powers without exhaustion of its own, and exercise additional central authority over them, with wide margins for subsequent contingencies. The right of the State, for instance, to determine the nature of the supervision the schools should have is indisputable. The expediency of any particular measure looking to that end, however, is a legitimate subject for discussion.¹

Court decisions. This same view has also been stated,

¹ *Annual Reports of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, 1898-99*, p. 188.

more or less clearly, in decisions of the highest courts in nearly every State of the Union. From a long series of such decisions quotations will be made from a few typical opinions, rendered in five of our American States, to illustrate the point of view of the State.

1. *New York State*. In the case of *Gunnison v. The Board of Education of the City of New York*,¹ the court said:

It is apparent from the general drift of the argument that the learned counsel for the defendant is of the opinion that the employment of the teachers in the public schools, and the general conduct and management of the schools, is a city function in the same sense as it is in the care of the streets, or the employment of police, and the payment of their salaries and compensation; but that view of the relations of the city to public education, if entertained, is an obvious mistake. The city cannot rent, build, or buy a school-house. It cannot employ or discharge a teacher, and has no power to contract with teachers with respect to their compensation. There is no contract or official relation, express or implied, between the teachers and the city. All this results from the settled policy of the State from an early date to divorce the business of public education from all other municipal interests or business, and to take charge of it, as a peculiar and separate function, through agents of its own selection, and immediately subject and responsive to its own control. . . .

In the case of *Ridenour v. The Board of Education of the City of Brooklyn*,² the court said:

. . . He is an employee of the Board of Education. It is not a part of the corporation of the City of Brooklyn, but is itself a local school corporation, like every board of school trustees throughout the State, and is, like every such board, an integral part of the general school system of the State. It is a state and not a city agency, doing state and not city work and functions. Education is not a city, village, county, or town business. It is a matter belonging to the State Government. From its comprehensive foun-

¹ 176 New York, 13.

² 15 New York Misc., 418.

dation by Chapter 75 of the Laws of 1795 down to the recent codification of our school laws, our state system of education has remained a consistent whole. The present Board of Education of the City of Brooklyn is as distinctly a part of that whole as is any school district in the State.

2. *Indiana*. In the case of the State *ex rel. Clark et al. v. Haworth*¹ the Supreme Court, in deciding the constitutionality of an act giving to the State Board of Education control of the new state textbook system, said:

Essentially and intrinsically, the schools in which are educated and trained the children who are to become the rulers of the Commonwealth are matters of state, and not of local, jurisdiction. In such matters the State is a unit, and the legislature the source of power. The authority over schools and school affairs is not necessarily a distributive one, to be exercised by local instrumentalities; but, on the contrary, it is a central power, residing in the legislature of the State. It is for the lawmaking power to determine whether the authority shall be exercised by a state board of education, or distributed to county, township, or city organizations throughout the State. With that determination the judiciary can no more rightfully interfere than can the legislature with a decree or judgment pronounced by a judicial tribunal. . . .

As the power over schools is a legislative one, it is not exhausted by exercise. The legislature, having tried one plan, is not precluded from trying another. It has a choice of methods, and may change its plans as often as it deems necessary or expedient; and for mistakes or abuses it is answerable to the people, but not to the courts. It is clear, therefore, that, even if it were true that the legislature had uniformly trusted the management of school affairs to local organization, it would not authorize the conclusion that it might not change the system. To deny the power to change is to affirm that progress is impossible, and that we must move forever "in the dim footsteps of antiquity." But the legislative power moves in a constant stream, and is not exhausted by its exercise in any number of instances, however great.

3. *Illinois*. In the case of *Speight v. The People*² the court held:

¹ 23 New England Reporter, 946.

² 87 Illinois, 595.

All laws, whether in city charters or elsewhere, designed to affect free schools, may be regarded simply as school laws. And although they may require the boundary lines of cities to be adopted as lines for the formation of school districts, and that city officers shall perform the duties of school officers, yet this is for convenience only, and the districts thus to be formed, and the officers thus required to perform duties, are to be regarded simply as agencies selected by the State to provide a system of free schools. Although the limits and officers of the two corporations are the same, their purposes and objects are different, and they are, in fact, separate and distinct corporations. The one has its existence and is limited in the powers it may exercise by its charter, proper; the other by the school law.

In the case of *Potter v. Board of Trustees*¹ the court held, with reference to the powers of school trustees:

The trustees can act only in pursuance of law. They cannot be compelled to act unless the law is complied with in every substantial particular; nor are they permitted to act, until it is so complied with. They have no power to waive anything that is necessary to compel their action. They may not, as a matter of grace or favor, take territory from one district and add it to another. They may do this only in the cases provided by law, and whatever is essential to be done, before they are bound to act, they must require before they do act. They must know that the petition conforms to the law before they proceed.

4. *Minnesota*. In the case of *Associated Schools v. School District No. 83*, where a tax was contested, the court said:²

It has never been doubted that the State has the power to require of its municipalities the performance of duties of state concern, and to demand that they raise money by taxation and disburse the same for such purposes. These municipal subdivisions are merely auxiliaries of the State, created by the State as a means of exercising its political power in an orderly manner. Being thus subordinate agencies of the State, they are subject to the control

¹ 10 Appellate, Illinois, 343.

² 122 Minnesota, 254.

and direction of the legislature in matters of internal government, and the legislature may require such public duties and functions to be performed by them as fall within the general scope and objects of municipal organizations.

5. *California*. In the case of *Kennedy v. Miller*,¹ the supreme court said:

The City of San Diego is a corporation distinct from the corporation known as the School District of the City of San Diego, and the rights and obligations of the school district corporation are to be determined by the provisions of the Political Code of the State, and not by those of the charter of the City of San Diego; and a provision of its charter, that all moneys belonging to the school fund of the city shall be deposited with the city treasurer, does not supersede the requirement of the Political Code that all moneys pertaining to the public-school fund shall be paid into the county treasury.

The legislative declaration, in Section 1576 of the Political Code, that every incorporated city is a school district, though it makes each school district a public corporation, does not import into the organization any of the provisions of the city charter, or limit the powers and functions which, as a school district, it has by virtue of the Political Code.

Significance of these decisions. These clear statements of state policy are, however, relatively recent expressions of our highest courts, and represent the present clearly formulated interest of the State in the matter of public education. They are based in part on the fundamental theory as to the nature of the State itself, in part on the now well-established American principle that "the whole State is interested in the education of the children of the State," and in part on the conviction that the State cannot leave so important a matter as public education to the whims or caprices of individual communities.

The significance of these decisions, for the school adminis-

¹ 97 California, 429.

trator, is clear and important, and the student of educational administration should, at the start, grasp clearly the importance for education of its state authorization and control. Very fortunately, indeed, the school systems of our cities, in theory at least, have not been left to the mercy of local political interests. In practice, however, the conception of education as a state interest is not as yet so clear in the minds of the bulk of the electorate, and the best interests of the school systems of our cities are still at times subordinated to local political expediency. Nor has the State as yet, except here and there, assumed its proper rôle, either in legislation or in administration, as the protector of the educational rights of the children in our cities.

There is, however, a growing consciousness of state origin and authority among those responsible for and interested in the conduct of city school systems. There is also a growing tendency to appeal to the courts for the protection of educational rights and for the securing of adequate funds, and to the legislature for laws that guarantee to the school systems that independence of local municipal control, with its personal politics and political expediencies, which will enable the school systems of our cities to pursue their proper course and to care for the education of the future citizenship as it should be cared for.

Delegated authority. Ultimate state control, however, does not of necessity involve immediate state direction and oversight in anything. The State may delegate its authority, in whole or in part, to the subdivisions it creates within itself for purposes of local administration. As a matter of fact every State does so, though some do it to a much greater extent than do others.

In the early part of our educational history the delegation of authority to the subordinate units was very large. To the school district, in particular, the delegation in some

of our States was so large as almost to prevent the development of the schools. Indiana offers, perhaps, an extreme example of this, though in many other States the delegation of control was extensive. By the Law of 1833 the district system was substituted for the township in Indiana; three trustees were to be elected annually for each school district; taxes could not be assessed on any householder unless he sent his children to school; and religious and private schools shared equally with the state schools in the township school funds. In 1836 householders were permitted to make individual contracts for the education of their children, and finally, in 1841, the requirement of even a teacher's certificate was made optional with the district-school trustees. It was not until 1849 that Indiana enacted legislation which began the process of state subordination and control.

Massachusetts also offers us an interesting example among the older States. There the school districts were endowed with corporate powers in 1817, and in 1827 were permitted to select their trustees, determine the textbooks to be used, and to examine and certificate their teachers. In the days when there were practically no state standards, almost no supervisory officers, no normal schools or trained teachers, and no organized body of educational theory, such delegation of authority was a perfectly natural attitude for the State to assume. The rule of thumb and the school of practical experience guided both the trustees and the people in the management of their schools.

The recovery of state sovereignty. As a state consciousness as to the needs and purposes of public education began to develop in the different States, legislation began to be enacted which inaugurated the process of recovering the original sovereignty of the State. School officers were created to represent the State, to gather statistics, and to oversee and advise as to the establishment of schools and

the carrying out of the laws; state aid began to be granted, or was increased, and with state aid came closer state oversight and control; and details previously left to local initiative now began to be placed under the control of officers representing larger administrative units, or were prescribed uniformly for all by general state law.

This movement was well under way by 1850, but was checked for nearly three decades by the discussion preceding the Civil War, the war itself, and the period of recovery following the war. After about 1875 or 1880 the movement toward a greater unification and control of the different local school systems went forward rapidly, and since 1900 the progress of the movement has been very marked. The process has been one of the transference of powers from small communities to larger school units, in the interests of greater efficiency in school administration. The school district has been forced to surrender powers to the township, the township in turn to the county, and the county to the State.

Examples of such transference. Examples of the transference of powers from smaller to larger units of administration are abundant. The rights of parents to make individual contracts with teachers; to determine whether or not their children shall go to school, or whether or not they themselves will pay school taxes; and the right of parents assembled in district meeting to dictate the choice of the teacher, or to say whether a school shall be maintained this year or not, are examples of powers originally possessed by parents, but which the State has now completely taken away. The right of the school trustees of the district to waive the requirement of a teacher's certificate, or to certify the teacher selected, has been superseded by township or county certification, and this, in turn, has been replaced in many States by the requirement for all of uniform state teachers' certificates. Uniformity in textbooks and courses

of study, with the city, the county, or the State as the unit, has displaced the earlier plan under which each school in such matters was a law unto itself. Uniform laws relating to length of term, type of school or schools which must be maintained, subjects of instruction, type of school-building, sanitary conditions, compulsory attendance of children, and taxes which must be raised, have likewise superseded the earlier policy of leaving each district full authority in all such matters.

Such legislation has naturally gone further in some States than in others. In some a large degree of local control and decentralization is still the rule; in others the centralization of power in the hands of the State has become so great as to exert, at times, a cramping and stifling influence on the progress of the schools.

Advantages of state control. State control of public instruction has many advantages, but it has some disadvantages as well, and the purpose of wise educational administration must always be to utilize the advantages and to minimize the disadvantages as much as is possible. As a whole, the possible advantages greatly outweigh the possible disadvantages.

One of the chief advantages of state control is the power of the State to determine the minimum standards to be permitted, and to formulate a constructive educational policy. Once formulated, the State can see that this policy is carried out. The educational needs of the State may thus be considered as a whole, and be legislated for accordingly. What the State deems to be wise for its children, it may require communities to provide. If any community is too poor to meet the legitimate demands of the State, the obligation then naturally rests upon the State to help such community to comply with its demands.

In making education a state rather than a district or a

municipal function, the State also can prevent local civil governments from overlooking or slighting this "major claim." Regardless of what may be needed by the patronage departments of police, fire, water-front, and streets, the State can prevent the neglect of public education, in the perpetual city struggle for appropriations, by giving the school authorities power to provide for the needs of the schools independently of the city governmental authorities. If cities or other communities do not provide properly for their children, the State may even order that proper provision must be made.

In introducing uniformity where uniformity is desirable, as, for example, in the certification of teachers; in directing the extension of educational advantages to its children, as, for example, in the provision of high schools or vocational education; in requiring a longer school term, or better financial support; or in standardizing classroom construction or sanitary demands — state oversight and control may render very valuable service. Often the needs and rights of children can be safeguarded properly only by the intervention of the State itself, and this it should have the power to do when neglect is clearly evident.

Disadvantages of state control. On the other hand, the ease with which interested parties — citizens, teachers, or organizations — can go to the legislature of the State and secure school legislation which some local board of control has refused to grant — such as life-tenure for teachers or the imposition of some bad administrative form or condition, and which may be inimical not only to the best interests of the schools of the community concerned but perhaps also to other communities in the State — is an example of the disadvantages of state control.

Another serious disadvantage, unless carefully guarded against in legislation, is the infliction upon large and pro-

gressive school communities of a cramping uniformity and standardization, adopted either with the needs of smaller or average-type school communities largely in mind, or from a desire to standardize administration and make it easier to direct. Nearly all of the substantial progress which has been made in public education has first been made by some city school system, free to act in carrying out and testing a new idea, and such freedom in any worthy line the State should be very careful to safeguard. In some of our American States state uniformity, particularly in matters of textbooks, courses of study, and character of instruction, has already gone too far for the best interests of the schools.

The State's proper functions. Up to a certain point, varying somewhat in different States and with the type of school maintained, state oversight and control are desirable. Too much liberty may mean weakness and lack of coördination rather than strength. In such matters as methods of bookkeeping and accounting, uniform fiscal years, and uniform statistical returns, the State should prescribe such a degree of uniformity as will produce intelligent and comparable returns. In all such matters as types of schools which must be maintained, length of school term, education and certification of teachers for the schools, the supervision of instruction, building and sanitary standards, forms and rates of taxation, term for compulsory attendance, and child-protection laws, it is essentially the business of the State to determine the minimum standards which the State will permit in any school, or in the schools of any type or group into which the State may see fit to classify the schools for purposes of organization or administration. It is also the right and duty of the State to raise these minima, from time to time, as changing conditions or new educational demands may seem to require or as larger finances will permit. To do so frequently will involve reciprocal obligations

on the part of the State toward certain of its communities, but such the State must expect and prepare to meet.

On the other hand, those charged with the administration of public education ought carefully to guard against unnecessary uniformity in non-essentials, or a uniformity which may tend to stifle the higher educational activity of any progressive community. This is a constant danger in any State as the centralization of control proceeds. Uniformity in means and ends makes administration more machine-like and hence, to the ordinary executive, easier to handle. Uniformity, too, appeals strongly to certain types of minds, and often is pushed into non-essentials and to a degree that is both irritating and unnecessary. It should be remembered that too great a uniformity always is most cramping and deadening on the school systems most capable of making substantial educational progress. Between the two extremes the State's greatest service to its communities and to itself may be rendered.

A state educational policy. It ought to be essentially the business of the State to formulate a constructive policy for the development of the education of the people of the State, and to change this policy from time to time as the changing needs of the State may seem to require. This may involve more than the mere regulation of schools, and may properly include such educational agencies and efforts as libraries, playgrounds, health supervision, and adult education. Instead of being a passive tax-gatherer and law-giver, the State should become an active, energetic agent, working for the moral, intellectual, and social improvement and advancement of its people. The formulation of minimum standards for the various forms of public education, the raising of these standards from time to time, the protection of these standards from being lowered by private agencies, and the stimulation of communities to additional

educational activity, is a fundamental right and duty of the State. On the other hand, to find what can safely be left to local initiative and control, and then to pass this down, ought to be as much a function of proper state school administration as is the removal from community control of matters which communities cannot longer handle with a reasonable degree of effectiveness. Unity in essentials and liberty in non-essentials, as high minimum standards for all as is possible, constant stimulation to communities to exceed the minima required, and large liberty to communities in the choice of methods and tools and in the extension of educational advantages and opportunities, ought to be cardinal principles in a State's educational policy and in its relations to its subordinate governmental units.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Does the reasoning of Secretary Hill appeal to you as sound? If not, in what way is it weak?
2. Have you any legal decisions in your State in which the question of the unity of the State's educational system was involved? If so, what was the point in question, and the nature of the decision?
3. To what extent, in your State, is the State's authority in educational matters centralized, and to what extent delegated? List up, in parallel columns, a number of matters in which the State's authority is (a) centralized, and (b) delegated.
4. Does centralization of authority of necessity mean uniformity in procedure? Should it? If not, how may such be avoided?
5. To what extent do you seem to have a conscious state educational policy in your State, and what is its nature?
6. What recent legislation have you, in your State, which illustrates the advantages of state control?
7. The tendency, in the New England States, is for the State to become the unit in educational administration. What peculiar advantages would follow state unification in educational control there?

8. Illustrate what is meant by the State establishing minimum requirements.
9. What reciprocal obligations are likely to be met when a State increases the required length of school term?
10. What is the essential difference between education as a community affair, and local control of streets, pavements, parks, or sewers?
11. Where would you classify your State, in the matter of the centralization of authority and responsibility?

PROBLEMS

1. A city has reached approximately the limit for bonded indebtedness, when the city school district votes a large issue of additional bonds for sites and school buildings. A citizen brings suit to prevent the bonds being issued on the ground that the debt limit of the city will be exceeded. State how you would expect the courts to decide such a case, and your reasons for your conclusion.
2. A state legislature enacts a law requiring the establishment of high schools in all towns of two thousand or more inhabitants, and a town of proper size refuses to create one on the ground that the act represents an interference with local government. Suit is brought to compel compliance with the Act. State how you would expect the courts to decide this case, with your reasons, as above.
3. A city school board presents a budget to the mayor calling for a certain sum to conduct the schools the ensuing year, the amount being within the legal rate of school tax permitted by state law. The mayor, relying on a city charter provision giving the city authorities power to revise all city department budgets, recommends to the council that the school department budget be cut twenty-five per cent. The school board brings legal proceedings under the state law to compel the levying of the amount asked for. What probably will be the result? On what reasoning do you base your answer? Write out a decision on the case, with reasons.

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CHAPTER III

STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Evolution of forms of control. To carry out this more or less clearly conceived and defined state educational policy, which has been described, each of our American States has evolved some form or type of state administrative organization and control. The form, scope, and powers of such a state organization vary greatly in the different States, there being as yet no standard type. The evolution has been so recent, and is still so clearly in the process of further development, that but few of our States have at this time reached anything like a settled or permanent form of administrative organization. Everywhere, though, we find the State the unit, with a corresponding state educational organization of some type and some degree of effectiveness; everywhere, except in New England, Delaware, and Nevada, the county also is a more or less important administrative unit to assist the State in administering and directing the educational system; and within the county we find towns, townships, cities, districts, or subdistricts, varying in the different States, established by the State with a view to assisting in the administration of the system of public education maintained.

Chief state school officer. A common feature of each of our American state school systems, and including Alaska, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines, is the election or appointment of a chief state school officer, who is charged with certain definite and many indefinite functions. Prominent among the definite functions are certain clerical and statistical duties, specified in the school laws of the State; the preparation and distribution of blanks, for various pur-

poses; the interpretation and enforcement of the laws relating to schools; and, where there also is a state board of education, that of executing policies which have been decided upon by the board. The title of this officer varies somewhat, though that of "state superintendent of public instruction" is, at present, most frequently employed. Such titles as "superintendent of common schools," "superintendent of free schools," "superintendent of education," and "secretary of the state board of education" are also used by some of our States. In the recent reorganizations the tendency has been to substitute the term "commissioner of education" for these older designations, as being a title more expressive of the gradually enlarging functions of the chief state educational office.

The office an evolution. Like practically all other features of public education with us, the office of chief state school officer has been an evolution. The first State to create such an educational officer was New York, which appointed a superintendent of common schools in 1812. After nine years, however, the office was abolished, and the secretary of state acted *ex officio* as superintendent of schools until 1854, when the office of superintendent of public instruction was created. This official was displaced by an appointed commissioner of education in 1904. Maryland provided for a superintendent of public instruction in 1826, but in 1828 the office was abolished and was not re-created until 1868. Vermont provided for a rudimentary type of state school official in 1827, but abolished the office in 1833, and did not re-create it until 1845.

The first State to maintain continuously such a state official was Michigan, which created the office of superintendent of common schools in 1829. In 1836 the title was changed to "superintendent of public instruction," and as such has continued to the present time. The creation of

the Massachusetts State Board of Education in 1837, with an appointed secretary to discharge the duties of a superintendent of schools, was an event of much importance, and gave a decided impetus to the movement for the creation of a chief state school officer in each of the States. By 1850 every Northern State and some of the Southern States had either provided for such an officer or had designated some other state officer to act, *ex officio*, as such. Most of the new States to the westward created the office early in their territorial period, and all of the Southern States provided for such an official soon after the close of the Civil War.

Duties of such an official. During the early period of our educational history the duties of such a state officer were almost entirely clerical, statistical, and exhortatory. To look after the school lands, so far as they were under his control; to tabulate and edit the statistical returns required from the towns, townships, or districts; to compile an annual or a biennial statistical report; to apportion the state aid, as directed by law; and to visit the different parts of the State, stimulating teachers and school officers, and exhorting the people to establish or add to their schools, constituted almost entirely the duties of the early state superintendents of schools.

Since that time many new duties have been added. The decision as to controverted points in the school laws; the recommendation of courses of study, textbooks, and library books; the supervision of finances in the educational subdivisions of the State; the issuance and revocation of teachers' certificates; the visitation and conduct of teachers' institutes; the recommendation of desirable changes in the school laws; the publication of special bulletins; the inspection and accrediting of schools; and the serving, *ex officio*, on various educational boards, may be mentioned as among the more important of the newer duties of the office.

New demands for leadership. Within the past decade or two, with the rapidly enlarging conception as to the place and importance of public education with us, new ideas as to the nature of the chief state educational office have been pushed to the front. The continued transference of functions and duties from smaller to larger administrative units; the gradual extension of state oversight and control; the addition of new judicial and administrative functions; and the demand for real educational leadership in matters of instruction, administration, sanitation, child welfare, training of teachers, agricultural and vocational education, and school legislation, have all alike tended to increase the importance of the office and to demand a new type of chief state school officer. The exhorter and the institute worker have come to be needed less and less, the student and administrator more and more.

State boards of education. Another somewhat common feature of our state educational organizations is a state board for educational control, usually known as a "state board of education." The first state board for educational purposes was the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, created in 1784, and which has continued down to the present. Organized at first primarily for the management of Columbia College, new duties and functions have from time to time been added until the board has finally evolved into a strong state board of education for the control of the school system of the State, executing its decisions through an appointed commissioner of education and a staff of assistant commissioners and inspectors. Three other States ¹ provided for a rudimentary form of state educational board before 1837, in which year the State

¹ North Carolina in 1825, which was continued to 1852; Vermont in 1827, but which was abolished in 1835; and Missouri, from 1835 to 1861.

of Massachusetts created the first real state board of education, in the modern sense of the term.

By 1852 five other States¹ had created state boards of education, of one type or another, though few of them were at first entrusted with any important functions. The care of the school lands and the advising of the chief state school officer constituted the most important duties of such boards, in most of the States. The Massachusetts State Board of Education was given the most power, was the most active, and did the most to show the advantages of such an organization. The story of the life and work of Horace Mann,² who served as secretary from 1837 to 1849, is largely the story of the educational revival in Massachusetts and the formulation, for the Nation as well as for Massachusetts, of the principles of state oversight, advice, and control.

Since 1852 practically all of the other States have created some form of state educational board, and the creation or reconstruction of others has been recommended by a number of state educational commissions. Only two of our States at the time of writing have no such body.

Types of state boards. Four types of state boards of education exist in our different American States.

One, and the most rudimentary and most unsatisfactory type, is a state board of education composed, *ex officio*, of state officers.³ Elected as such men have been for other purposes than educational control, and with little knowledge of, or interest in, public education, such boards cannot, with safety, be entrusted with any important administrative

¹ Connecticut in 1839 (abolished in 1842 and re-created in 1865), Kentucky in 1838, Arkansas in 1843, Ohio in 1850, and Indiana in 1852.

² See particularly B. A. Hinsdale: *Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States*.

³ The state board of education in Missouri is illustrative of this type, being composed, *ex officio*, of the governor, the secretary of state, the attorney-general, and the superintendent of public instruction.

functions relating to public education. Such boards are usually superseded by a better form of organization whenever any large degree of educational control is entrusted to a board representing the State.

Another type of state board is one composed entirely of school officers, often designated for service on the representative principle,¹ and created on the theory that, since educational matters are technical and require expert knowledge, only school men who have risen to important educational positions are competent to handle them. The chief defects of such boards lie in that the persons designated are usually so busy with the work of their own cities or institutions that they give little attention to the larger problems of the educational system of the State, and that the chief functions of such boards should be to govern and not to execute, and for this expert knowledge is not fundamentally necessary. Combinations of these two types of boards, forming the third type, also are found in a few of our States.²

The fourth type of a state board of education is the small appointed board, composed of citizens of the State, acting as a board of directors of a corporation would act and exercising general control over the educational system of the

¹ The Indiana state board of education represents this type, being composed of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction, the president of the State University, the president of Purdue University, the president of the State Normal School, and the superintendents of city schools in the three largest cities of the State, *ex officio*, together with one county superintendent of schools, two other persons actively engaged in educational work, and an employer, an employee, and one other person of known sympathy with vocational education — all appointed members to be designated by the governor, for three-year terms.

² Virginia illustrates such a combination, the state board of education there being composed of the governor, the attorney-general, and the superintendent of public instruction, *ex officio*, and three educators, elected by the legislature from a list of eligibles submitted by the boards of trustees of the different state educational institutions.

State, but acting through the appointed executive officers of the board. This type forms a true board of educational control, and represents the most desirable form of state educational board which we have so far evolved.

Good state educational organization. Within the past decade certain rather clearly marked tendencies have become manifest with us in the matter of state educational organization. The recent legislative reorganizations in a number of our States¹ have followed, in the main, one direction. This has been the creation of small appointed state boards of education composed of representative citizens of the State, and substituting such boards for the former *ex officio* types of boards; the change of the chief state school officer from a popularly elected state official and clerk into an expert executive officer and adviser of the state board of education, and selected and appointed by it; and a marked increase in the powers and duties of both the state board of education and its executive officers, with a view to evolving a real state board for educational oversight and control.

The position of chief state school officer under a good form of state educational organization is, potentially, a more important position than that of the presidency of the state university of the State, and the recent legislative reorganizations have been in the direction of making it actually become such. The school business of any of our large American States has by now evolved into a every important state undertaking, costing the people of the State millions of dollars annually to maintain, and as such it should be placed under a form of management and control dictated by the best American experience in city and corporation manage-

¹ For example, New York in 1904; Massachusetts in 1909; New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Arkansas, and Oklahoma in 1911; California and Idaho in 1913; Wyoming in 1917; and California again in 1928.

ment. What these are we shall set forth in Part II of this volume.

The problem at hand. The problem at hand is how best to create a state educational organization capable of handling the State's educational business and problems in a really large way. The present very limited and politically organized state educational departments cannot much longer continue to try to handle the situation. With an efficient state department of education, organized along lines calculated to insure large and intelligent service, and manned by a number of properly qualified expert executive officers, many functions now handled rather poorly by local officials and subordinate administrative units could and should be transferred to state control. Conversely, with an efficient reorganization of subordinate administrative units, as we shall point out further on, certain functions now exercised by the State could be passed down to these subordinate units to handle, and as local needs might seem to require. The real problem is how to secure greater administrative efficiency without interfering with local initiative and impairing local administrative efficiency.

A State's educational policy. If a State is to carry out properly its educational functions there must be a clearly conceived constructive educational policy, looking toward a series of progressive changes over a period of time. In many of our States such a policy seems to be almost entirely lacking. Of all our States, Massachusetts, New York, and California stand out as the ones which have carried forward, for the longest time, a somewhat definite educational policy in dealing with the cities and towns of the State, and much of the educational progress which these States have made has been the result of this well-thought-out and consistently followed educational policy.

Unity in essentials, and large liberty in non-essentials; as

high minimum standards for all as is possible; constant stimulation to communities to exceed the established minima; large local liberty in the choice of methods and tools, and the extension of work; the freeing of the larger and more progressive schools from a uniformity perhaps necessary for small and backward school systems — these ought to be essential features in any wise state educational policy. To discover what can safely be left to local control, and then to pass such duties downward, is as important a feature of wise state educational administration as is the gathering up by the State of functions which communities can no longer exercise intelligently or well.

The State as a unit, however, is too large and too distant an administrative organization for many phases and forms of school control, and for purposes of better control the State has subdivided itself into a number of subordinate units, of different types. We shall next examine each of these, to see what are the advantages and defects of each for purposes of school control.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Classify the duties of the chief state school officer in your State under the headings of (a) Administrative, (b) Supervisory, (c) Clerical and Statistical, and (d) Judicial.
2. How much real power has he, under each head?
3. What new demands have come on the office in your State during the past decade?
4. If there is a state board of education in your State, of what type is it?
5. What powers and duties are entrusted to it?
6. Is there any clear distinction between legislative and executive functions in its work?
7. Illustrate what is meant by "unity in essentials and large liberty in non-essentials," as applied to state educational supervision and control.
8. In what way is the position of chief state school officer po-

tentially a more important one than that of president of the state university?

9. Try to formulate some general rule for delimiting state oversight and control on the one hand, and local oversight and control on the other.
10. Just what do you understand to be meant by the statements that:
 - (a) It is the duty of the State to impose minimum educational requirements?
 - (b) These must be imposed with the needs of the State, rather than of individual communities, in mind?
 - (c) Such imposition of minima often will involve reciprocal obligations on the part of the State?
 - (d) The State should be an active, energetic agent working to improve educational conditions throughout the State, rather than a passive tax collector and distributor?
11. Arrange the different methods of creating a state board of education in a series, in order of merit, and state the advantages and disadvantages of each.
12. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the plan of organizing education as one of the big departments of a state government — education, engineering, highways, mines, etc. — and then having the governor appoint the heads of all departments, these heads forming a sort of a cabinet with him?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Salaries paid the chief state school officer in the elective and the appointive States. (Cubberley.)
2. The state educational organization as found in New York State.
3. The increase in professional staffs of state departments of education, within recent years. (Ferguson, Bulletin 17, 1925, U.S. Bureau of Education.)
4. The increase in centralization in school administration in your State, in the past twenty-five years, and an evaluation of the changes.

PROBLEMS

1. Draw up an outline chart showing the form of state educational organization and the departments existing in your State.
2. Read the article by Bobbitt, listed in the references, and write a brief review of it in the light of the principles stated in this chapter.

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CHAPTER IV

COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The county in school administration. All of our American States are subdivided into counties, for purposes of local administration. As an administrative unit the county is least important in New England, and most important in the West and South.¹ The size of the county varies greatly, being smallest in the South and largest in the West, though, due to the greater sparsity of population in the West, the county there can hardly be said to have, as yet, attained its ultimate size. In the better settled portions of the United States an area from 350 to 600 square miles represents the usual size.²

As a subordinate division of the State for the administration of the educational system maintained by direction of the State, we find the county in all stages of evolution from practically nothing to an important administrative unit. In New England, Delaware, and Nevada attempts to make use of the unit for purposes of school administration have been abandoned. In New England the county unit, so little used there for any administrative purpose, was given up as

¹ In New England the county is used for little except judicial purposes, while in the West and South it forms a natural unit for the management of almost all phases of the county's business.

² For example, the average size of the counties in Maryland is 415 square miles; Virginia, 402 square miles; Georgia, 389 square miles; Alabama, 765 square miles; Ohio, 463 square miles; Indiana, 392 square miles; Illinois, 549 square miles; Nebraska, 835 square miles; Colorado, 1728 square miles; Utah, 3044 square miles; and California, 2684 square miles. In other words, Eastern and Southern counties vary from 20 by 20 miles square to 25 by 30 miles square, while Western counties run from 40 by 40 to 60 by 60 miles square. Yet in the West the county is extensively used as an administrative unit.

an educational unit decades ago in favor of the smaller town¹ and the State. In Delaware, where there are but three counties, the State has virtually superseded the county in the administration of the schools. In Nevada, due to the sparsity of population, the county unit was abandoned for the larger unit of a group of counties united to form a state supervisory district, under the supervision of an assistant state superintendent.² In all other American States we find the county as a more or less important educational subdivision of the State, extending from the weak county and strong district combination, as found in Illinois and Missouri, to the county as the unit of organization and administration, as found in Maryland and Utah. Between these two extremes all forms or stages in the development of county control are to be found.

Evolution of a county school officer. As education began to evolve into a state interest in our country, the need for developing some subordinate form of state control became evident. The school-land sections needed to be looked after by some person representing the larger interest of the State; the local school officials needed supervision, to see that they maintained schools as required by the laws, and that the school moneys were properly levied and spent; an agent to collect statistical information for the State and to act as a means of communication between the State and the school districts became more and more desirable; and, often most important of all, an agent of the State was needed to stimulate a local interest in schools, and to help and inspire teachers in their work of instruction.

¹ An irregular area of from twenty to forty square miles.

² There are at present five such officers for the entire State of Nevada. Nevada has an area practically the same size as that of New York and the six New England States combined, but only about as many teachers are employed in the entire State as are employed in such a city as Fall River, Massachusetts.

Hence a county school officer, known as a county superintendent of education, a county school superintendent, or a county superintendent of public instruction, was gradually provided for, sometimes by amendment of or during a revision of the constitution of the State, and sometimes by statute laws. Sometimes, too, the office was gradually evolved out of some other county office, such as auditor, or treasurer, or probate judge.¹ In Iowa and in some of the Southern States the office evolved out of the presidency or executive officer of the county board of education, an organization which in some States preceded the county superintendency. In New York and Michigan, too, the township superintendency preceded the county superintendency. The office of county superintendent of schools began about 1835, and by about 1870 was common in most of the older States. In the newer States to the west the office frequently was created in the territorial period.

Early duties of the office. Everywhere, at first, the county superintendent was to a very large degree a clerical and statistical officer, representing the State in the carrying out of a state purpose, and serving as a means of communication between the State on the one hand and the school districts of the county on the other. He recorded changes in district boundary lines; apportioned the income from funds to the districts; saw that the teacher employed possessed a teacher's certificate; collected figures as to expendi-

¹ Illinois and Indiana represent the process fairly well. In 1835, in Illinois, the office of county land commissioner was created to look after the school lands; in 1845 some educational functions, and the title of *ex officio* superintendent of schools were added; and in 1855 the position of county superintendent was created. In Indiana a county school commissioner was created in 1835 to look after the school lands, as in Illinois; in 1841 the duties were transferred to the county auditor, and he was made *ex officio* a county school officer; in 1853 a county examiner of teachers was created, and the school functions of the auditor transferred to him; and in 1873 the position of county superintendent of schools was created.

tures, attendance, etc., and reported the same for his county to the State; visited the schools and advised trustees and teachers; and exhorted the people to provide for and extend their schools.

His duties were simple and required no professional training or skill, so election from among the body of the electorate, and for short terms, with as frequent changes in the office as in the case of any other county officer, early became the established method for securing this official. Officially he represented the State; actually he represented the people. The method of nomination from among the electorate of the county, and election by popular vote, established early, has been followed by the new States to the west, and was carried into some of the Southern States in the period of Reconstruction following the Civil War. Despite a number of changes which have since been made, and the many disadvantages of continuing to use the elective method, it remains to-day the most common plan for selecting the superintendent of education for our counties.

New and changed duties. After the office of county superintendent of education had become established, new duties began to be entrusted to this new official. Some of these new duties were passed down from the State above, in the form of a delegation of authority; others have been gathered up from below, by taking the powers away from the districts. Most of the new powers have come from the gathering-up process, the district authorities being gradually deprived of more and more of their early power and authority, in the interests of the more efficient education of the children of the districts concerned. Examples of such transference of powers and authority have been cited in Chapter II.

As the result of a long process of transference, extending over more than half a century, the office of the county super-

intendent of schools has to-day, in many of our American States, evolved into an office of large potential importance, and the county superintendent has become a general overseer of education, representing the State. The county, too, has become, to a greater or less degree in the different States, an important subordinate unit for the administration and control of the State's system of public instruction. In all clerical and business matters the county superintendent, or some clerk acting for him, acts as a county supervising officer for all records and business matters concerning the schools within the county. In professional matters the superintendent commonly acts as the chief educational officer of the county, determining largely what is to be done. Unlike other county officers, his functions are only in part clerical and routine; and if he is to render the highest service he must be a professional leader rather than an office clerk. It might almost be said that his real effectiveness as a county superintendent is determined by how far he is able to subordinate office routine to real professional leadership. While much of his work must be at the county seat, his real work, nevertheless, must be out in the schools of his county.

New demand for educational leadership. Perhaps the most marked change which has come in the conditions surrounding the office of county superintendent of schools, within the past two decades, has been the marked increase in the demand for the exercise of professional functions. The effect has been to inaugurate a movement which will, in time, effect important changes in the office of county superintendent of schools. The rapidly rising demand for real professional supervision for the rural schools, supervision that is close, personal, and adequate, and the many movements for the improvement of rural education, which have been brought to the front so prominently within the past ten years, are expressions of this changing conception as to

what the office ought to be and what the officer ought to do. The yearly visit of a politically elected county educational officer no longer suffices; what is needed now is the close oversight and direction of an expert in village and rural education — one possessed of imagination, breadth of view, and expert technical and professional knowledge. Everywhere our rural and small-town schools are calling for educational leadership and for professional supervision of a new type, but this cannot come, in most cases, until there is a marked change in the nature of the county educational office. Of what this change should consist, and the nature of the new functions and duties which should be developed, we shall point out more in detail in Part III, after we have first considered the problem of administering and supervising school systems in our cities.

County boards of control. In a number of our American States some form of county board for school control, commonly known as a "county board of education," has been created by law and with a view to carrying out better the State's educational purpose in establishing schools.¹ To such boards either consultative powers or additional educational functions have been entrusted, with a view to improving the administration of the system of schools within the counties.

Some of these boards are quite rudimentary in type, as, for example, the county high-school boards of Nevada, whose sole function is to act as a board of control for the county high school, should such an institution exist. The *ex officio* boards of county textbook commissioners in Iowa or South Dakota, whose one function is to adopt textbooks

¹ In a number of Southern States such boards preceded the provision for a county superintendent of education, such officer frequently being evolved out of the presidency of such a board, or being selected by it to act as its agent and executive officer. Iowa and Delaware represent the former method; Georgia and Louisiana the latter.

for use in the counties, also represent another rudimentary type. The county boards of examiners, found in many of our States, and whose function is to examine and certificate teachers for the counties, represent another type of county board for partial school control. The county boards of education of California,¹ which examine and certificate teachers for the schools, examine pupils for graduation and issue diplomas, make the courses of study, and approve supplemental books and apparatus for purchase by the districts, represent a still higher degree of county board control.

In addition to such rudimentary or partially developed county boards, a few of our States have also provided for the appointment or election of real county boards of education, boards which exercise functions analogous to those exercised by city boards of education. In a few of the States having such boards they exercise a coördinating and supervising authority over the different school districts of the county; in a few others they have reached their full logical development, and direct, in conjunction with the county superintendent of education, the schools of the whole county, much as a city board of education and a city superintendent of schools direct the schools of a city. Where the full logical development has been attained, the school districts naturally have been subordinated to county oversight and control. Maryland and Utah offer good examples of such development.

The educational problem involved. The problem now before our American States is what form or forms of county educational organization will secure for the rural and small town schools of the State the best educational administra-

¹ Composed of the county superintendent of schools, *ex officio*, as secretary, and four others appointed by the board of county supervisors, three of whom must hold teachers' certificates. These are boards of school men, exercising largely professional functions.

tion and the closest, most effective, and most highly professional supervision. The rural-life problem, which has developed within the past three decades, and which is now forcibly demanding attention, is fundamentally a problem of educational reorganization, and the rural schools of our States are badly in need of such an educational reorganization and redirection as will enable them to render a distinctively larger service to the communities in which they are located.¹

These reorganizations and reconstructions call for constructive educational leadership of a new type, and the changing of the county to a more important unit for the administration of the system of public instruction which the State has seen fit to organize and to maintain is one of the important steps in that direction. The county supervisory system is weak in almost all of our Northern and Western States, partly because of the political nature of the office of the chief county school officer, partly because the clerical rather than the professional functions predominate, partly because county boards of control of the right type have not, as yet, been developed, and partly because of the large powers still granted to subordinate educational units within the county. Under a good form of county educational organization the possibilities for helpful and constructive service are very large, and the office of county superintendent of education will, in time, become an office of large importance, attracting to the position many of the best-trained men engaged in educational work. Before indicating how this may be accomplished, however, we wish first to pass to a brief consideration of these smaller educational administrative units, and then to a somewhat detailed

¹ In another volume in this series, *Rural Life and Education*, the author has set forth this rural-life problem at much greater length and has pointed out the means necessary for its solution.

consideration of the organization, administration, and the peculiar educational problems of the one type of these units in which remarkable educational progress has been made.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. To what extent is the county an educational unit in your State?
2. How and when did the county school officer evolve in your State?
3. Is the method at present followed in your State for securing this officer satisfactory, or not? If not, what changes in method would you suggest?
4. List up some of the powers and duties that have been transferred from the districts to the county educational authority.
5. Classify the duties of the chief school officer of your county under the heading of (a) Administrative, (b) Supervisory, (c) Clerical and Statistical, and (d) Judicial.
6. How much real power has he, under each head?
7. If the district system flourishes in your State, how do the powers of the county superintendent compare with those of a board of district trustees?
8. If there is a county board of education in your State, in what stage of development is it, judged by its powers?
9. How far are the powers which it exercises helpful and stimulating to the schools, and how far restrictive and unintelligently uniform?
10. How much of an attempt has been made, in your State, to reach the rural-life problem through educational reorganizations and redirections?
11. Illustrate some of the new demands for leadership on the office of County Superintendent of Schools.
12. Compare rural and city school supervision as to adequacy and effectiveness.
13. How do you explain the slow development of centralizing tendencies in county school control, while nearly all other forms of county business have been centralized?
14. Compare the training, salary, standing, influence, and possibilities for usefulness of an elected county school superintendent and an appointed city school superintendent.

15. Why do rural people cling so tenaciously to popular election as a means for securing the county school superintendent, when the experience in the selection of experts for almost all forms of public service is opposed to such a procedure?
16. One of our States, for a time, provided by law that no person should be elected to the office of county superintendent of schools "for more than four years in succession." On what conception of the office was such legislation enacted?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. History of the county superintendency in your State.
2. List the statutory duties of the county superintendent in your State under (a) Clerical, (b) Financial, and (c) Educational, and his political activities under (d), and evaluate his services.
3. Compare the county educational organization of Utah with that of your State.

PROBLEMS

1. From the *School Law* of your State, list the statutory duties of the County Superintendent of Schools under the headings: (a) Clerical, (b) Financial, and (c) Educational, and try to evaluate the three divisions in percentages of time and effort required.
2. List the new educational duties that have, or should have, come to a county superintendent of schools, during the past quarter of a century, due to the rapid advance of education as an organized subject.
3. Draw up a comparison of the work of a county and a city board of education, as to nature, scope, principles involved in handling, and place and powers of the chief executive officer of each.

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CHAPTER V

TOWN, TOWNSHIP, AND DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

County subdivisions for administration. In a few of our States, as has been mentioned, the county has been made the unit for educational administration,¹ but in most of our States the county is still further subdivided into smaller administrative units for the more detailed administration of the State's educational system. These smaller administrative units are towns in New England, townships in the North-Central States, and school districts in all parts of the Union outside of New England, except in the county-unit States. Each of these smaller units also represents the State, in a small locality, in the carrying out of the State's educational purpose; each is entrusted with more or less limited powers, and is charged with more or less important duties; and each, except in New England, Delaware, Nevada, and the county-unit States, reports through the county unit to the State, and is in turn in part directed in its work by the county educational authorities. We shall next consider these smaller subordinate administrative units, and in the above order.

1. *The New England town*

The town. The town is a peculiarly New England institution, though the term is also applied to similar subdivi-

¹ That is, all schools in the county, with the exception, perhaps, of large cities, are under the management and control of one county board of education, which employs the superintendent of schools and directs the general work of organizing the schools. Louisiana, Maryland, and Utah are good examples of such county-unit organization. In Georgia the central city as well is a part of the county organization. See map on page 64 for the county-system States.

sions in New York State. A New England town is irregular in shape, the boundaries following hills, water-courses, or old roads. The so-called townships of New Jersey and the boroughs of Pennsylvania have the same irregular characteristics. In size the New England town contains, as a rule, from twenty to forty square miles. The New England towns thus have natural geographic boundaries, and, except where the earlier homogeneity of the towns has been disturbed by rapid growths in population or modern industrial developments, each town forms a natural center for a community life. The term "town" is applied to all of the area included within the civil government, and may include farmland, suburban residence districts, villages, and even a small city.¹

The educational affairs of each town are managed as a unit by one town school committee, elected by the people of the whole town, and all of the schools of the town — city, village, and rural — are under its administrative control. For supervision each town in Massachusetts, and to a certain extent in the other New England States as well, separately or in conjunction with one or more other more or less contiguous towns, must employ a superintendent of schools who devotes his time to the work of supervision,² and who acts as the executive officer of the school committee or committees. A superintendent in Massachusetts thus presides over a small and compact school system, either a

¹ A New England town is thus somewhat like a Western township, except in form, though the use of the term "town" is quite different in the two parts of the country.

² All towns in Massachusetts must employ a superintendent of schools. Of the 355 towns and cities in the State, 107 employ a superintendent alone, while the remainder unite with other towns to employ such an officer. There are 77 union superintendencies in the State — 21 of 2 towns each, 27 of 3 towns, 26 of 4 towns, 2 of 5 towns, and 1 of 6 towns. The Massachusetts idea of compulsory supervision is being extended rapidly to the other New England States.

city school system or a small county school system in type.¹ To a large degree the problems of organization and administration in New England are the problems of either a city or a small county school system to the westward. Instead of reporting through a county educational officer, and being subject in part to his oversight, these towns report directly to the state educational authorities.

Marked features of the town system. Perhaps the most marked feature, as well as perhaps the most commendable single feature, of the New England town system for school control is the organization of all of the schools — rural, village, and city — of the geographical area known as a town under one school board, one superintendent, and one administrative organization. The school districts within the towns, which once existed generally throughout New England, and which did more to ruin the efficiency of the schools of the towns than any other single feature, have everywhere been entirely abandoned,² and town school control has been substituted in their stead. So far as district lines still remain they exist merely to classify and regulate the school attendance.

All children in the different schools of the town are provided with an equal length of term, high schools and special-

¹ Supervisory Union No. 64 (in Essex County), and the city of Newton in Massachusetts, illustrate these two types well.

Union No. 64 is composed of the four towns of Merrimac, Newbury, Salisbury, and West Newbury. The total population of the four towns is approximately 6800, the combined area about 57 square miles, and the number of teachers employed 39, for the 34 different schools. This is essentially a small rural county.

Newton, on the other hand, with a population of approximately 50,000, an area of 18 square miles, maintaining 42 schools and employing 388 teachers (1926), is essentially a city school system.

Many such examples may be found in the different New England States.

² See map on page 64 for dates of the final abandonment of the district system.

school advantages are open equally to all, special subjects of instruction and special supervision go to all schools, the school property is all under one board of control, and the cost of maintaining the school system of the towns is spread equally over the property of the entire town. All pay the same rate, and all share in the same educational advantages.

The schools of the whole geographical area known as the town are managed as a unit, just as the schools of a city elsewhere are a unit for maintenance, administration, and supervision. The beneficial results of this unified administration are an equally long school term for all the children; better teachers, at better wages; better and more sanitary school buildings; a common course of instruction for all schools, with high school advantages for all; free transportation to and tuition in the central town high school; special instruction (music, drawing, and manual and domestic arts) for all; good professional supervision for every school; and a systematic organization of the town's educational resources under a single small school board, responsible to the people for results. This unified instructional organization, and the natural character of the town boundaries, are two of the most important advantages which the New England town possesses over the Western township form of school organization. The chief defect of the town as a unit for educational organization is that it is too small for present-day needs.

2. *The Western township*

The township. The township system of the North-Central group of States is a somewhat similar but less well-developed form of school organization, and may be regarded as an imperfect adaptation of the earlier New England town system to the newer States of the Central West. Like the

New England town system, the Western township form of school organization, where not still broken up by the district system, attempts to provide for the systematic organization and administration of the educational affairs of a whole township under one responsible board,¹ elected by the people to manage the schools, and with the idea of securing something of the same efficiency in educational administration which characterizes a New England town. As a subordinate unit for educational administration, the township is greatly superior to the still smaller school district which it has generally displaced. A better equalization of both the opportunities and the advantages of education are provided under it than under the smaller district unit, and it is more efficient and economical as well. In the matter of providing high-school facilities for rural communities the township, in the upper Mississippi Valley, has rendered particular service.

Disadvantages of the township unit. The chief disadvantages of the Western township unit lie in its rectangular outlines, its lack of adaptability to natural community boundaries, the exemption of the central towns from township control, and its fixed area — too large for some purposes, and much too small for others.

Instead of following natural geographical boundaries, defined in outline by natural community lines and varying in size to meet local needs, as do the New England towns, the Western township boundaries run straight across the country, following the points of the compass, and bear no relation to natural geographical features or to possible community boundaries. The area, too, which is six miles square everywhere west of east central Ohio, has too often in the

¹ Usually a board of three or five, but in Indiana the schools are under the control of the same one township trustee who looks after roads, bridges, and poor-relief for the township.

past proved too large a unit for purposes of school organization. In the future, with better developed means of transportation, it is almost certain to prove too small.

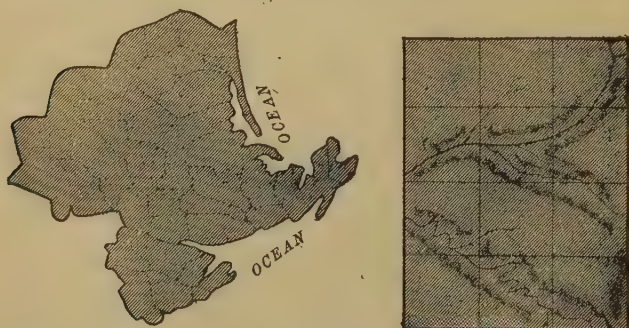


FIG. 3. NEW ENGLAND TOWNS AND WESTERN TOWNSHIPS COMPARED

Essex County, Mass. Area
497 sq. miles, 34 towns.
Av. size of towns, 15
sq. miles.

Huntington County, Ind. Area
386 sq. miles. 12 townships.
Size of townships, 36
sq. miles.

The difference is well shown in the two counties drawn in the accompanying figure. These differences in size and shape and area, together with the fact that the township form of organization is unadapted to rough country, are distinct weaknesses of the Western township unit. Another distinct weakness of the Western township unit is that in many cases it has been broken up by a further subdivision into school districts, with separate boards of district school trustees. Where this has been done the township system virtually disappears.

Almost nowhere do we find the township unit in simple and well-defined form. Even in Indiana, which represents perhaps the best example of the township form of school administration, the unity of the township is nearly everywhere broken into by the exemption of the central incor-

porated town or city from any close connection with the township educational organization.¹ In financial matters, in particular, the central town or city is largely or wholly independent. This fundamental difference from the New England town system of school administration, where a unified school organization is the rule, is another distinctly weak feature of the Western township unit for school organization and control.

The township unit not fundamentally necessary. The county oversight and control found in the North-Central States, which is absent in New England, is another important difference between the town system of New England and the township system under discussion. The towns of New England deal directly with the State, as there are no county educational authorities; the townships of the North-Central States deal primarily and directly with the county educational authorities, and only secondarily and indirectly with the State. This difference makes the township unit much less necessary for school administration in the West than is the town in New England, and had led to numerous recommendations for its abandonment in favor of the county as the unit for school organization and administration.²

Thirty to forty years ago nearly all movements for a larger unit of school organization and administration than the

¹ That is, the central village, as soon as it comes to possess any property, is permitted to set itself off as a separate school district, and to become financially and educationally independent of the township.

² The Illinois Educational Commission, in 1909, so recommended, and the Indiana Educational Survey Commission, in 1923, said:

"To make way for desired educational developments the citizens of Indiana, in 1852, realized that they must think beyond district lines. If now there is to be a statesmanship and businesslike efficiency in the organization and administration of rural schools, and at a reasonable cost, the citizens of 1923 must think beyond township lines and accept the county as the local rural school unit."

school district looked toward the township as a unit, and some legislation was secured looking toward substituting it for the district unit. So great has been the change, however, in our ease of communication and methods of doing all forms of business, since 1900, and so rapidly has the scope of modern education expanded, that units which seemed large enough a quarter of a century ago seem small to-day. The tendency of the past quarter-century, in all forms of local public service, has been clearly toward larger units for administration — usually the county — in the interests of efficient management.

Like the town in New England, the township marked a distinct advance over the school-district unit which generally preceded it, but, as will be pointed out in a later chapter (Part III), better administrative conditions could now be provided in most of our States if all fixed administrative units, smaller than the county, were displaced by making the county the educational unit, and then organizing within the county, and as the changing necessities of education might seem to require, flexible and changeable administrative groupings to meet local conditions and needs.

3. The district system

The school-district unit. The rise and spread of the district unit for school organization and administration has been traced briefly in Chapter I. It was the natural unit in the beginnings of our school systems. It was particularly adapted to a time of little general interest in public education, before the period of state and county school officers and a developed administrative organization, and to agricultural communities with but few means of communication and but little interest in one another. It was well adapted, too, to the days of small things, and to schools which gave instruction only in the rudiments of an education.

Originating in New England, and as a part of the process of disintegration of the earlier town government, it spread to the westward and to the south, and firmly established itself before conditions were ripe for any other unit of organization. The result is that to-day, after nearly all the conditions which gave rise to the district form of organization have passed away, and when new social and educational needs are almost imperatively demanding a larger and a better unit for rural-school organization and administration and a different type of school, the little district unit is tenaciously clung to by the rural people of many of our States, and largely because they remember its earlier advantages and are blind to its present defects.

Bad features of the district unit. As a unit for school organization and maintenance the district system has been condemned by educators for fifty years, and the educational conditions existing in any State to-day, so far as they relate to rural and village education, are in large part to be determined by how far the State has proceeded along the line of curtailing the powers of the district-school officials and transferring their functions to county and state educational authorities, or of entirely abandoning the district system of school organization and administration. The map on page 64 shows the present use of the different units of school organization and administration in the different American States.

The district unit is no longer so well adapted to meet present and future educational needs as are other units of larger scope. District-school authorities are usually short-sighted, and often fail to see the real needs of the schools under their control. The large number of district-school trustees required — an army of thirty to forty-five thousand in an average well-settled State — in itself almost precludes the possibility of securing any large proportion of

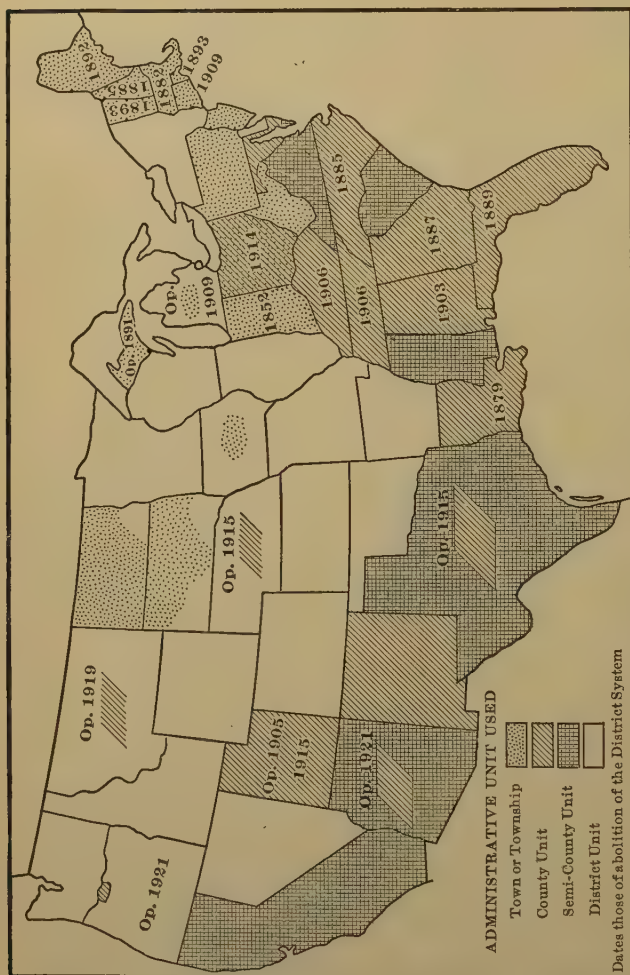


FIG. 4. FORMS IN USE FOR SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Op. means optional organization under a larger unit, at the date given. Nevada and Delaware combine a state unit with district organization, without any intermediate administrative control.

competent and efficient men. The district unit is entirely too small an area in which to provide modern educational facilities, and the difficulty of securing coöperative action of the trustees of a number of adjacent districts for a larger and a better school is a difficulty that is almost insuperable.

As a system for school administration the district system is expensive, inefficient, inconsistent, short-sighted, unprogressive, and penurious; it leads to a great and an unnecessary multiplication of small and inefficient schools; the trustees frequently assume authority over matters which they are not competent to handle; it leads to marked inequalities in schools, terms, and educational advantages; and it stands to-day as the most serious obstacle in the way of the consolidation of rural schools. Most of the progress that has been made in rural education within the past two decades has been made without the support and often against the opposition of the district-school trustees and the people they represent.

District system not necessary. To have a fully organized board of school trustees for every little schoolhouse in the county — a board endowed by law with corporate rights and important financial and educational powers — is wholly unnecessary from either a business or an educational point of view. In fact, it is just such boards which impede progressive action and stand as the most effective block in the road of real educational progress for rural children. As a means for providing for the establishment of schools the district system has rendered its service, and there is to-day little call for the continuation, in any great numbers, of the kind of schools which the district system brought into existence and nourished through the critical period of the infancy of our state educational systems. The real progress of rural social life and social institutions to-day depends

upon the organization, for country people, of an entirely different type of rural school.

A fundamental reorganization needed. What is needed is a fundamental reorganization and redirection of rural and small-village education, and along lines which will transform such schools into more useful social institutions. This, however, can be accomplished only by some authority of larger scope and insight than the district-school trustee, and by the application to the problem of a larger type of administrative experience than that represented by district control. In New England this is in process of accomplishment by the town, or the grouping of towns, acting under the educational oversight of the State. Elsewhere the county seems the natural unit for this reorganization. In Part III we shall point out the many advantages which the county possesses for this purpose, and lay down the fundamental principles which should govern sound county educational organization.

The city district an exception. All that has been said so far as to the defects of the district unit has referred to the small community district, and to the district system as a general form for state educational organization. It should be stated here, however, that there are school districts of larger size and different type to which the same conclusions do not apply. When we pass from the country district to the city district an entirely different set of conditions arise, and a series of special problems now appear that call for special treatment.

In the chapter which follows we shall consider the city school district as a special type and as an exception, and see how far state control may apply, and to what extent special powers and larger authority may be needed, in dealing with this special type of school district.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is the organization of all the schools of a town — rural, village, and city — under one board of control a distinct educational advantage?
2. Assuming that the chief reason for the segregation of the villages and cities in the West has been the financial one, why is its continuance unwise? How might this stimulus to segregation be eliminated?
3. How does the township unit provide for a better equalization of the opportunities and advantages of education than does the district unit?
4. From the figure on page 60, point out the advantages of the New England town over the Western township in the matter of boundaries.
5. What is the value of the common argument for the school district — that it is the most democratic of our units for government, and has been very valuable in training our citizenship in the institutions of democracy?
6. Why has the movement for the consolidation of schools made but little headway, and why is it likely to make but little headway in the future, in any strong district-system State?
7. In a number of States an attempt has recently been made to educate trustees as to their duties by an annual institute. Of about what value is this?
8. If the district system has been condemned generally for so long a time by educational authorities, and does not provide good schools, explain why the people fight so to retain it?
9. Try to picture the results if any large city should attempt to conduct its schools to-day on the district-system plan.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. History, plan, and working of the supervisory-union plan of supervision as found in Massachusetts.
2. The working of the township unit for schools in Indiana, as described in *Public Education in Indiana*.
3. The working of the district system, as found in such strong district-system States as Illinois, or Missouri — especially the powers and duties of the school trustees.

PROBLEMS

1. Take the figures for any district-system State and calculate the number of trustees needed to manage the schools. Try to estimate the unnecessary duplication of effort and the waste in administration resulting from such a number of people working at the same task.
2. Under a rational reorganization of the educational affairs of a county, with good consolidated schools replacing the many district schools, about what percentage of the present teaching force would be needed to conduct the elementary schools? What effect would such consolidated schools have on the extension of educational advantages?
3. Prepare a tabular statement of the advantages and disadvantages of each of the three forms for school organization and administration considered in this chapter.
4. Take the *School Code* for any strong district-system State and list the powers and duties assigned by it to district school trustees, and determine what ones they are competent to handle and what ones ought to be transferred to county or state authority.

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Chapters VIII and IX consider the subject matter of this chapter much more in detail.

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Chapter V describes briefly the working of the district system in Delaware.

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See for numerous short articles on topics related to the subject matter of this chapter.

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Gives data taken from surveys of the school systems of Arkansas, Minnesota, and Oklahoma to show that the district form of school financing produces financial and educational inequalities and injustices that are very marked.

CHAPTER VI

THE CITY SCHOOL DISTRICT

The city district a special case. In addition to the types of school district which we have previously described in Chapters IV and V, we have a few forms of special school districts to which, because of their peculiar problems, special powers have been granted by law that they may better carry out the purposes for which schools have been created by the State. The most important of these special types of school districts, and the one we desire soon to study in some detail, because of the many important contributions it has made to educational administration, is the city school district. At this point we will merely describe it and place it, leaving a consideration of its peculiar problems and experiences to Part II of this book.

This special form of school district presents a very different type of problems from those of the rural or small-village district. It is of course true that the city school district is, in a sense, only a country or a village school district grown large; but, by reason of its very size, the character of its population, the complexity of its interests, and its peculiar needs and problems, it represents a form of school district which has commanded special powers and been treated somewhat as a special case. Still more, cities of different size present quite different problems in organization and administration — a city of fifty thousand people having quite different conditions and needs from those of a city of five thousand, or, on the other hand, from those of a city of half a million population. Even two cities of approximately the same size, say one hundred thousand inhabi-

tants each, may, due to very different social, economic, and racial needs, present quite different educational problems for solution.

While necessarily a part of the state educational organization, city school districts nevertheless represent special as well as somewhat individual problems, to which uniform standards and mass requirements cannot be applied, in many things, if the best educational results are to be expected. The minimum standards of the State for such districts the city school districts should of course be expected to meet, but large freedom should be given cities in exceeding the state minima, in the types of classes they will maintain, and in the choice of the tools and methods by which they are to accomplish the required educational results.

The city district an evolution. In the beginnings of our school systems there were but few cities, and nearly all schools were rural schools. With the growth of our population, and with the increasing tendency of our people to congregate together in centers, certain areas or places increased in population much more rapidly than did others. Rural school districts developed into villages, villages into small cities, and small cities into large ones.¹ As the community grew the number of small, ungraded, one-teacher schools was multiplied, and later these were collected together into larger buildings, and into a more or less graded school or group of graded schools. Still later a public high school was organized. The school principal was evolved, and later on the supervising principal and school superintendent appear.

At first the number of school districts was multiplied, without unifying the schools. Later, when unification was effected, the board of trustees frequently was increased in size, either by the addition of new members for the new

¹ This is in a way illustrated by the growth of the central city in Figs. 1 and 2, on pages 6 and 7.

schools or the new areas annexed, or by the subdivision of the rising city into wards and the election of one or more members to the board from each ward. The title of the board also was changed, in the process of development, from that of the "board of school trustees," or "school directors," to that of "city board of education," and the school laws of the State now granted to the new board enlarged powers in the administration and control of the schools.

Illustrative cases. Most of our city school districts have had such an educational history. Three such evolutions will be described:

The city of Buffalo illustrates the process fairly well. The first schoolhouse was erected in 1806. This was burned in 1818, and the first tax for an educational purpose levied by Buffalo was in 1818, for the purpose of rebuilding this school-building. By 1832 the growth of the city had been such that six small school districts, each with one small schoolhouse and one teacher, had been organized within its confines. Even in 1837, when a new law permitted the appointment of a city superintendent of schools to coordinate and oversee the schools, there were but seven districts and seven teachers, so that his duties must have been very light. On the full establishment of the free-school system, in 1839, the number of districts was increased to fifteen and a school ordered established in each, with a central school for instruction in the higher English branches.

The schools of Chicago present a somewhat similar history. The first public school was opened in 1832, and by 1837 the school system consisted of five school districts, each with its own board of district-school trustees, each of which employed teachers, levied taxes, and built buildings. In 1851 the power to employ teachers was taken from the district trustees, of which there were now seven boards, and in 1853 the position of city superintendent of schools was created, to grade the schools and to introduce order and unity into the system.

The present city of Redlands, in southern California, offers a good modern case of a similar nature. Three country school districts happened to abut at the place where this city began to grow. Each district was under the control of a special board of three

district-school trustees, and each maintained a small rural school. In time the schools increased from one-room schools to many-room schools, and a principal was employed by each board. The three districts later united for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a high school, but retained their separate identity as elementary-school districts. The three elementary-school principals evolved into supervising principals, as the schools grew. They met together and made a gentleman's agreement with one another and with the high-school principal with regard to transfers, school regulations, courses of instruction, and standards. Finally, the people voted to consolidate the three elementary-school districts and the high-school district into one city-school district, under a city superintendent of schools, and to substitute one city board of education for the different district-school boards.

Recent rapid growth of city school systems. It was not, however, until about 1860 or 1870, and one might almost say not until after about 1875, that the special problems of city school organization and administration began to attract

TABLE SHOWING GROWTH OF CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

YEAR	PER CENT OF TOTAL POPU- LATION IN CITIES OF 8000 OR OVER	NUMBER OF CITIES			
		of 8000 or over	of 25,000 or over	of 50,000 or over	of 100,000 or over
1790.....	3.3	6	2		
1800.....	4.0	6	3		
1810.....	4.9	11	4	2	
1820.....	4.9	13	5	2	1
1830.....	6.7	26	5	3	1
1840.....	8.5	44	8	5	2
1850.....	12.5	85	21	9	7
1860.....	16.0	141	31	16	9
1870.....	20.9	226	49	25	15
1880.....	22.6	286	107	35	20
1890.....	29.0	447	124	58	27
1900.....	32.9	545	161	79	36
1910.....	38.7	782	233	109	50
1920.....	43.8*	924	292	146	68
1930.....					

* In addition to this percentage add 7.6 per cent for persons living in cities of 2500 or over and under 8000, and 8.5 per cent for persons living in incorporated places of less than 2500 inhabitants. This leaves 40.1 per cent of the population, in 1920, as living in rural districts and unincorporated villages.

any serious attention. In the first place, there were but few cities at an earlier date, and these were relatively small in size,¹ as the accompanying table on page 73 shows. The school systems of the cities, too, were of a relatively simple type, and their boards of school trustees, with the help of the people of the city districts, exercised almost complete control. But few cities had as yet created the office of

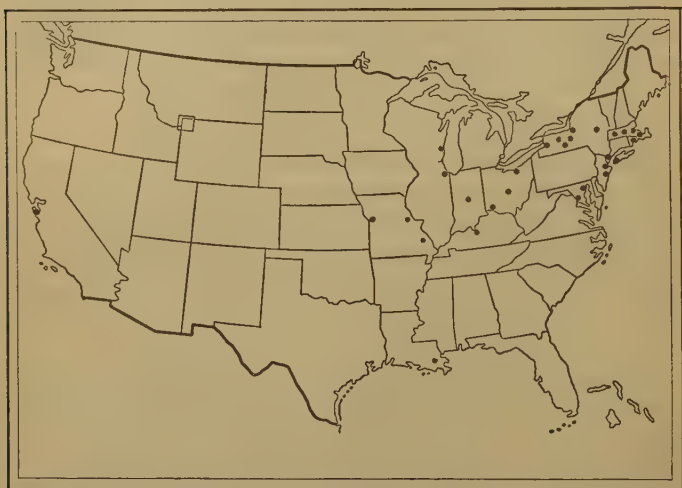


FIG. 5. SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE TWENTY-NINE CITIES HAVING A CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS BY 1870

superintendent of schools, and the few which had had assigned clerical rather than executive functions to the new official. As late as 1870 there were but twenty-nine super-

¹ The modern city has been made possible by steam and electricity, and the solution of the problems of sewage and water-supply. Steam and electricity have provided transportation and machinery, thus making manufacturing on a large scale possible, while the solution of the sanitary problems has removed the greatest handicap to the growth of towns before the nineteenth century.

intendents¹ of city schools employed in the entire United States,² and with but thirteen of the then thirty-seven States represented. Yet there were, at that time, 226 cities having a population of 8000 or more.

Since about 1870 the growth of city school systems, both in number and size, has been very rapid, as the table given on page 73 shows, and with this growth many new problems in school organization and administration have been pushed to the front. Not only has the number of city school systems multiplied rapidly since 1870, but the size of many then in existence has trebled or quadrupled since that time. In 1870, too, there were but fifteen cities having 100,000 inhabitants; in 1920 there were sixty-eight such cities, and these sixty-eight cities contained 26 per cent of the total population of the United States. In these larger cities the public school system is comparable in size to state school systems, as the table given opposite shows, while the administrative problems are different and more difficult and the complexity of the school system is greater.

Prominence of city administrative problems. With the

¹ These 29 cities were, with decades of their first appointment:

Buffalo, N.Y.	1837	Baltimore, Md.	1849	Chicago, Ill.	1854
Louisville, Ky.	1837			St. Louis, Mo.	1854
Providence, R.I.	1839	Cincinnati, O.	1850	St. Joseph, Mo.	1854
		Boston, Mass.	1851	Indianapolis, Ind.	1855
Springfield, Mass.	1840	Gloucester, Mass.	1851	Worcester, Mass.	1855
New Orleans, La.	1841	New York City	1851	Milwaukee, Wis.	1859
Rochester, N.Y.	1843	San Francisco, Cal.	1852		
Columbus, O.	1847	Jersey City, N.J.	1852	Albany, N.Y.	1866
Auburn, N.Y.	1848	Newark, N.J.	1853	Kansas City, Mo.	1867
Brooklyn, N.Y.	1848	Cleveland, O.	1853	Washington, D.C.	1869
Syracuse, N.Y.	1848	Oswego, N.Y.	1853		

From a table prepared by William T. Harris, while United States Commissioner of Education.

² The Civil War gave a check to the movement for city school supervision, but three cities being added during the war decade. By 1876, however, 142 cities, out of some 250 cities at that time having 8000 inhabitants or over, had city superintendents of schools, and the number has rapidly increased since then. In the *Educational Directory*, published by the United States Commissioner of Education, 2832 superintendents in cities and towns of over 2500 inhabitants are listed for 1927-28.

TABLE COMPARING CITIES AND STATES IN SIZE, 1920

CITY	POPULATION	STATE	POPULATION
New York City.....	5,621,151	Ohio.....	5,759,368
Chicago.....	2,701,705	Wisconsin.....	2,631,839
Philadelphia.....	1,823,158	Louisiana.....	1,797,798
Detroit.....	993,739	Florida.....	966,296
Cleveland.....	796,836	Oregon.....	783,389
Boston.....	748,060	Maine.....	768,014
Pittsburgh.....	588,193	Rhode Island.....	604,397
Los Angeles.....	576,673	Montana.....	547,593
Milwaukee.....	457,147	Utah.....	449,446
Washington.....	437,571	New Hampshire.....	443,083
Cincinnati.....	401,247	Idaho.....	431,826
New Orleans.....	387,219	New Mexico.....	360,247
Minneapolis.....	380,582	Vermont.....	352,421
Indianapolis.....	314,194	Arizona.....	333,273
St. Paul.....	234,595	Delaware.....	223,003
Worcester.....	179,754	Wyoming.....	194,402
Harrisburg.....	75,917	Nevada.....	77,407

increase in both the number and the size of cities, and the marked increase in the number of educational functions assumed by the cities, as their school systems have evolved, the schools in our cities have differentiated themselves in character from those in the rural districts, the villages, and the incorporated towns. So marked has been the modification of school systems to meet special urban needs, arising as a result of the rapid development and the changing character of our municipal population, problems, and governments, that it may be said that the great bulk of the problems of school control which have been before us for discussion and solution, during the past fifty years, have been problems relating especially to the city school district. Only recently have our rural and village and small-town schools received any particular attention, either in discussion or in legislation. So rapid, too, has been the city development since about 1870 or 1875 that the ingenuity of both legislators and school men has been taxed to evolve ways and means by which our city school districts could meet the

many new problems which the rapid growth and changing character of our cities have pushed to the front.

The city's distinctive contribution. As a result our city school systems have so far offered the largest opportunities for constructive educational leadership, and they have attracted the best minds to their service. It is not too much to say that the great educational advance which we, as a nation, have made during the past half-century has been, to a very large degree, the advance which our cities have made in organization, administration, supervision, equipment, instruction, and in the extension of educational advantages. The grading of schools, the development of high schools, the introduction of instruction in special subjects, night and continuation schools, vacation schools, playgrounds, evening lectures, schools for adults, the kindergarten, the junior high school, schools for subnormals and supernormals, schools for dependents and delinquents, compulsory education, health supervision, standards for a new school plant, vocational guidance and vocational instruction, free textbooks and supplies, new types of schools and school buildings, the establishment of the value of good supervision and business organization, and the working-out and establishment of sound principles in educational organization and administration — these have been distinctive contributions which the city school district has made to our educational theory and practice.

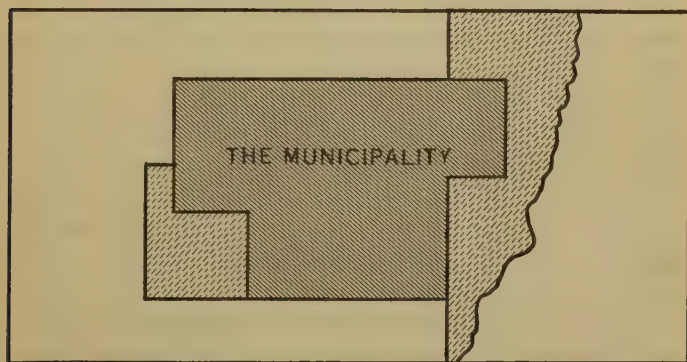
As a result, most of our best administrative experience in the field of public education is that which has been worked out in the organization and administration of the school systems of our American cities. It is the city that has been the battle ground, and it is there that new administrative conditions have been tried out and administrative standards have been formulated and set up. It is to a study of city administrative experience, then, that we naturally turn for

guidance in handling other types of problems in school organization and administration, as a study of the best administrative experience of the cities frequently can throw much light on administrative problems in other fields of public education.

State vs. city control of the city school district. One very important reason why the cities have been able to make such marked educational progress, and to contribute so much to our theory and practice in the field of school organization and administration, has been that the school was from the first established as an institution of the State, which local communities were required to provide and maintain, instead of being left optional locally, as have been streets, fire protection, sewers, parks, and police. Another reason has been that our city school districts have been quite free in the past to go ahead, within the limits of their finances, and do what they saw to be done and knew how to do. Up to recent years the States have been willing to grant to the cities almost any form of educational charter, and have shown but little disposition to interfere with the cities in their educational work, though there is, at present, a growing tendency toward uniform regulation and toward an increase of the state control. The general interest of the people of the whole State in the maintenance of good schools, the laws requiring all communities to meet certain minimum standards, and the general conception of the school district as a separate and distinct corporation from the municipal corporation with which it may be partially or wholly coterminous, have all alike served to protect the school system from either too great interference or neglect by the municipal authorities. All these points have been important elements of strength for the school system of our cities.

Protection instead of bureaucracy. With the growing tendency of the State to increase its oversight and control

of all types of school districts, and the constant temptation, with the growth of the school system, to interested persons or bodies in municipalities to subordinate public education to personal or political ends, there is an increasing need for a clearer definition of the rights, powers, duties, privileges, and obligations, individual and reciprocal, of both the State and the school districts of our cities, and of the administrative officers placed in charge of each.



-  The original city school district
-  Territory later annexed for elementary-school purposes only
-  Boundaries of a larger high-school district, formed still later

FIG. 6. MUNICIPAL AND SCHOOL DISTRICT BOUNDARIES COMPARED

The original school district was coterminous with the municipality, but later extensions of the school-district boundaries have changed materially this earlier situation.

To preserve the schools from the deadening rule of a state bureaucracy, and at the same time to protect them from local political exploitation or neglect; to leave to the cities as large liberty in the selection of textbooks and courses and methods as is consistent with the securing of the results

desired by the State; to require that city school systems meet common state standards but with liberty to exceed them if they so desire; to see that local school systems are adequately financed, instead of being subordinated to the pressing demands of city patronage departments; to insure a well-trained and a properly certificated teacher for every child, and a proper length of educational opportunity for all; to keep the school systems of the city school districts in touch with community needs and expressive of community wishes, and at the same time safeguard them from political exploitation; and to protect the administrative officers charged with the conduct of the schools by a clear separation of administrative and legislative functions as between them and the boards created for school control — these are the principal problems in the relation of the State to the city school districts subordinate to it. The State, as the guardian of the educational rights of its future citizenship, and as the sponsor for and protector of a great state trust, must see that local administrative units do not override such rights and interfere with the execution of a trust for local or political or selfish ends. At the same time the State must not unduly cramp or limit the ability of the city school districts to work out their special problems in their own best way.

Other problems of relationship. In addition to these primary problems of state oversight and control, the problems of relationship confront the State in dealing with the city school district. Chief among these are problems as to the best form of organization for the board of control for the city school system; the powers and duties which should be given to such boards; the powers of the state department and its officers to insist on proper administration by city school authorities; the business and statistical relations of city school districts to the county and to the State; the classi-

fication of city school districts on the basis of size, or some other basis, for the placing of extra educational requirements and the granting of larger freedom; the powers which should be guaranteed, by law, to the superintendent of schools and other executive officers in city school districts; the extent to which cities, as centers of wealth, should contribute to the partial maintenance of schools in county and State; the general business administration of the schools; the financial powers to be given city district boards, both for annual maintenance and for plant expenditures; special requirements as to the school plant; health supervision and sanitary control; special problems relating to the teaching corps; courses of study and textbooks; and the maintenance of special-type schools. The prime purpose of the State in legislating on all such matters is not so much to impose its will as to stimulate the cities to educational activity; not so much to insist upon the State's methods of doing things as to insure satisfactory final results; not so much to establish maxima beyond which cities may not go as minima below which they shall not be allowed to drop.

Any wise constructive state educational policy will keep these problems of relationship clearly in mind, and will observe, wherever possible, a definite line of demarcation between the powers and rights of the State and the privileges and options of communities. It is primarily the business of the State to preserve and advance the general educational welfare, but in doing so it should recognize the special character of the city school district and should allow all reasonable scope in all matters in which individual variation may be desirable.

Other phases of state educational control. Before turning to a detailed study of the educational work of the city school district, as we shall do in Part II of this volume, we desire first to carry further our study of state educational

organization and state oversight and control as we find it expressed in four matters of fundamental importance, viz.: (1) the scope of the school system which is required or permitted; (2) how the school system as required or permitted is to be financed; (3) the State's oversight of the teacher who is employed by the districts to teach in the schools; and (4) the general oversight of the State in such matters as school buildings, health work, sanitary control, textbooks, and attendance. To these important topics we shall devote the four chapters which follow, and then we shall turn to a detailed study of the educational experiences of the city school district to see what we may learn that will throw further light on the problems surrounding proper state educational organization, administration, and school control.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why has the school-district meeting passed out with the establishment of city boards of education?
2. Name three causes for the rapid and continued concentration of population in cities.
3. Why has such a marked educational expansion been necessary, for the larger cities, during the past half-century?
4. How would you classify cities, if drawing up a law for their government for school purposes, and what different powers and duties would you give to the different classifications?
5. What are some of the specific restrictions which your State imposes on the cities in their exercise of control over the schools?
6. What do you understand by "freedom in the choice of tools and methods by which they [city school districts] are to accomplish the required educational results"?
7. Compare the administrative problems of a state superintendent of public instruction in any of the States given in the table on page 76 with those in the corresponding city.
8. Is there "a growing tendency to increase the state control" over city school districts in your State, or not? If so, how has it manifested itself?

9. Would you say that it has been the result of a more general appreciation, on the part of the public, of a state responsibility for good schools, or to some other cause?
10. Show that, as regards public education, the relation of the State to the city is essentially and necessarily different from the relation with reference to other municipal functions.
11. Distinguish between natural centralizing tendencies in state educational administration, and "aggrandizing tendencies" on the part of the state educational officials or state boards.
12. What fundamental educational principle should underlie all centralizing legislation?
13. Distinguish between narrow and prescriptive, and liberal and adaptable state oversight and control of city school districts, in such legislative matters as courses of study, school building plans, maintenance of special-type schools, and secondary education.
14. Why is it that we can point out the weakness of a situation years before we can hope to remedy it by legislation?
15. To what extent is the proper solution of the problems of relationship, cited on pages 80 and 81, tied up with progress in other fields of political and social endeavor?
16. Should the State attempt to direct or supervise the instruction in city school districts, under a city superintendent of schools? If so, to what extent and how, and in what size of cities?
17. Is there a tendency in your State to subordinate the interests of the schools "to the pressing demands of other city departments"? If not, why not? If so, why so?

PROBLEMS

1. Examine the *School Law* of your State, and determine how much liberty your cities have, as compared with rural-school districts, in such matters as courses of study, textbooks, school expansion, types of classes, and similar matters.
2. Determine, similarly, from the *School Law* and city charters, how much freedom to levy taxes for schools is given to school boards in cities in your State, or in any selected State, with reference to oversight by the city council or other political governing body.

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Section IV of this thesis is very good along the lines of this chapter.

Cubberley, E. P.: *Changing Conceptions of Education*. 68 pp. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1909.

A brief historical sketch, relating especially to Chapters I and II.

Cubberley, E. P.: *Public Education in the United States*. 517 pp. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1919.

Gives much additional historical matter along the lines of this chapter.

Monroe, Paul, Ed.: *Cyclopedia of Education*. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1911-13.

An important work. See especially the articles on "City School Administration"; "District System"; and "State School Administration."

Morrison, J. C.: *The Legal Status of the City Superintendent*. 162 pp. Warwick and York, Baltimore, 1922.

Chapter II gives a good historical sketch for Connecticut and Ohio, and Chapter VI states the fundamental governmental principles involved in proper city school administration.

CHAPTER VII

SCOPE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM MAINTAINED

Expansion of the original "common school." In formulating a constructive policy for the educational system of the State, it has been necessary for all of our States to determine, by general law, the scope of the school system that must or may be provided by the subordinate divisions of the State. When education at public expense began in this country its whole range, outside of the few cities of the time, was represented by the short-term ungraded district school. For another quarter of a century this short-term ungraded elementary school comprised almost all there was to public education, and the early constitutions and laws referred to it as the "common school." Out of these so-called "common schools" we in time evolved the full graded elementary school as we know it to-day, all the special types of elementary schools which have from time to time been created to meet new and special educational needs, and finally the high school as an upward extension of the work of the common or elementary school. The expansion of the term "common school" to include all these extensions of public education had to be confirmed, both in the laws and in the thinking of our people.

From the early beginnings just indicated we have expanded the provisions of the School Codes of our States, usually without the formality of amending the constitutional statement, to include all the essential features of not only elementary and secondary education, but of special-type schools, industrial and vocational education, supplemental and extension work, and higher and professional

education as well. Our people have clearly conceived of the elementary and secondary school as being parts of one common school system, offering equal opportunity for all, and to be maintained by the general taxation of all property.

State requirements. In carrying out this state purpose the people of our different States have built up a series of *State School Codes* which define the state school system that must be maintained, and which make detailed provision for its administration and supervision. By general law the State has determined what shall be considered as constituting an elementary or a secondary school; when kindergartens and high schools may or must be established; what shall constitute a legal school day and month; when fiscal years must begin; what holidays are to be observed; forms for school accounting; when and what kind of a health service must be provided; when special-type schools and special forms of instruction may or must be established; who must attend school, and for how long; who may be excluded from school, and for what reasons; what subjects must be included in the courses of study, and the language for instruction; that propaganda and sectarian instruction must be prohibited in the schools; and the types of extra educational advantages — part-time schools, citizenship classes, adult education, library extension, vocational education and guidance — that must be provided. All of these requirements it is proper that the State should determine by general law, and for all schools in the state school system. Recently the State has begun also to determine the type of school buildings which local school districts may erect and use for school purposes.

It is primarily the function of the State to set standards, rather than to give directions; to fix by law the general minimum educational requirements that every school system should meet, leaving minor details to school boards

and executive officers to determine by local regulations; to open the way by authorization and stimulation to communities to exceed the minimum requirements of the State, and to undertake new and desirable forms of educational effort; to avoid rigidity in requirements, so as to leave opportunities for progressive communities to do differently; and to desire, above all things, results, rather than to force the following of any prescribed method or plan of procedure. To this end large freedom should be granted to the larger communities, at least, in choice of tools, methods of work, and forms of organization, so long as the state purpose is carried out. An ultimate aim of state school supervision and control, too, should be to transfer to subordinate units — cities, counties, towns, townships — the control of as many of the details of organization and administration as can well be turned over to them. With these fundamental principles in mind we can now formulate, with ease, desirable principles of state action in the matter of the general control of the school system provided.

State control of courses of study. It is perfectly proper that the legal school subjects to be taught should be enumerated in the law, if too minute direction as to instruction in them is avoided. It may be stated as a fundamental principle that detailed state courses of study, and fixed textbooks from which the subjects must be taught, should never be required of county or city units by the State. While there is some reason for such requirements for small district schools, as they are largely without any proper supervision of the instruction, it would be much better to strengthen the town or county supervisory unit, as we shall indicate in Part III, and then leave all such matters to the unit of supervision for handling. On the other hand, it may be stated also as a fundamental principle that the detailed working out of courses of instruction, and the selection of

the textbooks to be used in following the same, should always rest with the unit of supervision — town, county, or city — concerned.¹ The detailed working out of courses of study to put into effect the state requirements ought to be one of the distinct functions of local school supervision.

The excuse that uniform courses of study are necessary because there are so many poor teachers and poor supervisory officers in the State is of no great weight, at least when applied to city and county-unit school systems. On the contrary, such uniform requirements crush initiative at one of its most important places and tend to keep both teachers and supervisors poor. This argument does not mean that the State may not very properly issue suggestive courses of study, and even require their use where the district system reigns supreme and county supervision is weak; the danger lies in that the suggestive courses are so easily translated into required courses for all except possibly the largest units.

Effect of uniform courses. The effect of uniform courses of study on school systems that are alive is likely to be deadening in what ought to be one of the most vital phases of school work. Fixed state courses are not necessary for satisfactory educational results: what is taught is, after all, of less importance than the conditions surrounding instruction and the type of teacher employed to do the teaching. Most progressive city school systems are substituting flexible for fixed requirements. From the point of view of pupil differences a fixed and uniform course of study is an educational impossibility. Such imposed state courses tend to per-

¹ In this matter the Osceola Constitution, Art. IX, Sec. 13, provides as follows: "The general assembly may, from time to time, change or add to the statutory school subjects, and the state board of education may issue suggestive courses and plans, but the detailed arrangement and working out of the courses of instruction, and the selection of all textbooks to be used, shall always be left to the different city and county units of supervision."

petuate average conditions and to defeat the aims and purposes of professional supervision — they lead to school inspection instead. While our schools probably are approaching a time when the subject matter of instruction will be more standardized, in broad essentials, than is now the case, we are not yet ready for any crystallization of courses by state authority.¹ Too much still remains to be established experimentally; whatever standardization is to take place should come about as an outgrowth of professional activity, largely as a result of the establishment of criteria for work by individual school systems. This statement is as true for junior and senior high school courses of study as for elementary school courses.

Differentiation of instruction, flexibility in requirements, experimentation, adaptation to a rapidly changing social and industrial world, and adjustment to widely varying individual needs must always remain watchwords in course of study construction. In no part of the school system is this more true than in the secondary school, where progressive school men are experimenting and trying to adapt the junior and senior high schools more closely to the adolescent needs of boys and girls and to the requirements of a modern complex and economic civilization. The best results, probably for a long time to come, will be obtained through experimentation in schools that are working laboratories. The mistakes that may be made under this plan will be in no way comparable to the gains that will come through freedom to experiment.

Special types of schools. During the past twenty-five

¹ The chief work of the State, for the present, probably lies in limiting the number of school subjects that may be added. The recent California legislation forms a good example of such desirable state action. There the number of statutory school subjects had finally reached thirty-one, when the legislature reduced the number to twelve enumerated subjects, with permission to local boards of education to add only three more.

years we have evolved so many different types of special elementary and secondary schools, to meet the special needs of pupils and our national life, that few state classifications of to-day include them all. Instead of attempting to enumerate all permitted types, it is better that the state authorization should be in the form of general authority to school districts to establish such special classes or groupings of children as may enable the school district to provide instruction adapted to pupil needs, and such as may provide equal opportunity for all. If the fundamental elementary and secondary classes are required, and proper support of them made mandatory, then the determination of what particular forms of special classes districts may establish may be left to local authorities to determine, and what ones the State will help to maintain can then be left for determination to the laws regulating the apportionment of school funds.

Under such general permission any city or county school system can then provide, or unite with some other school district or school districts in providing, special classes for those with defects of speech or sight or hearing, classes for the instruction of superior or backward or border-line pupils, classes for incorrigibles and truants and misfits, industrial classes or schools, opportunity classes, agricultural classes or schools, classes for other races where race segregation seems desirable, classes for non-English-speaking pupils, over-age classes, open-air classes, evening-school classes, vacation schools or classes, special art classes, and other similar special forms of educational opportunity — all without the necessity of securing legislative permission each time it is desired to provide some new form of teacher or instruction. The limitations to the extension of such educational opportunity to smaller groups are the limitations of the tax rate for schools. The State may also, very

properly, classify cities and school districts as to size, or on any other basis, and require that all school districts of a certain size or over must provide any enumerated special class or classes.¹

New conceptions as to educational need. Entirely new conceptions as to educational needs have come to us as a people since the beginning of the twentieth century. As our civilization and political life have grown in complexity, as our place in world affairs has become larger and more difficult, as the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship have increased, as our social and industrial life has become more extended, and as production has come to be more specialized and the possibility of change from one vocation to another more limited, we have come to see that both the nature and the scope of the education offered young people in preparation for life must both change and increase. As these truths have come to be recognized by an increasing number of our people, we note the extension both of the scope of the school system and the requirements for attendance at school. New classes and types of instruction have been provided, the age for leaving school has increased, and serious attempts have been made to enforce the compulsory attendance laws.

One marked evidence of the truth of the above statement, aside from the enactment of more stringent attendance laws, has been the provision of part-time schooling and the wide extension of vocational education. Beginning in 1910 with New York State, more than one half of our States have since enacted part-time education laws that are state-wide in application, while still other States are helping their cities to maintain some form of part-time instruction. These laws require the attendance at some form of part-time-school in-

¹ Massachusetts forms a good example of such state action. There it is common to require certain teaching or action of large towns or cities, and to require less or none at all of the smaller towns.

struction, for a limited number of hours per week, of all youth, of both sexes, who are over 14, 15, or 16 years of age, and up to 17 or 18 years. Such legislation has been enacted in the interests of the thousands of working boys and girls who have had to give up the completion of a high-school course, and is a manifestation of democratic government at its best, as it aims to protect youth from exploitation and neglect and to prepare them somewhat better for their future work as breadwinners and their life as citizens.¹

Americanization classes. The World War brought forcibly to our attention the fact that we had been permitting large numbers of the foreign-born to come to our shores, without doing anything to give them an understanding of our national genius and institutions or to prepare them for intelligent citizenship. Begun first as a war measure, Americanization classes soon attracted nation-wide attention as a means for assimilating the foreign-born into our national life. The importance of such classes, both for the State and the Nation, is very large, and such classes and instruction, for the present at least, must be assumed as a necessary part of the State's system of public instruction.² The entry to citizenship in the future should be through such classes, and in their conduct the teacher occupies a very important place.

All these new conceptions as to the nature and scope of a

¹ The aims of the part-time school have been well stated by O. D. Evans, principal of the Boston Continuation School:

1. Conservation and extension of the education already acquired.
2. Provision of opportunity for pre-vocational experience to aid in the choice of a vocation.
3. Vocational guidance and follow-up work.
4. The establishment of an efficient employment bureau.
5. Tying school work with the job.

² A number of States, notably Massachusetts and New York, have made good beginnings on general state plans for such work. See Erwin, E. J., *An Americanization Program*, for good descriptions of city work.

state system of public instruction have come to us only quite recently, partly as a result of deeper study of the problem of training a nation's children and partly as a result of changing national conditions and the expression of new national needs, and each has called for a sidewise extension of the educational program. In addition to the vertical expansion of the range of public education from the kindergarten to the high school, we now see that there must be a number of lateral extensions of the scope of the school system properly to meet the needs of the widely varying types of children in our schools. If we are to educate all the children of all the people our school system must be wider in scope than if we are to educate only a selected class.

Vocational training. About 1910 the American people began to realize that a Nation such as ours, occupying the place it does in a world of expanding international commerce and increasing competition for world trade, must put trained technical skill as well as mere labor into what it sells, and that this calls for a widespread system of vocational training for our workers. Aided by the Federal Government through the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act, in 1917, giving aid to the States to create and maintain a comprehensive system of agricultural, industrial, trade, and home-economics education,¹ we are now in process of developing what promises soon to become a national system (in scope) of vocational education. It was provided that the new schools should form an integral part of the public school systems of the States, and that the States should propose the program of work to be followed, thus preserving the unity of the public educational system. This new addition to our systems of

¹ As significant of the interest which a decade and a half of discussion had awakened in the question, every State signified its acceptance of the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Law within five months of its enactment.

public instruction promises to bring us educational returns beyond expectation, and financial gains out of all proportion to its costs.

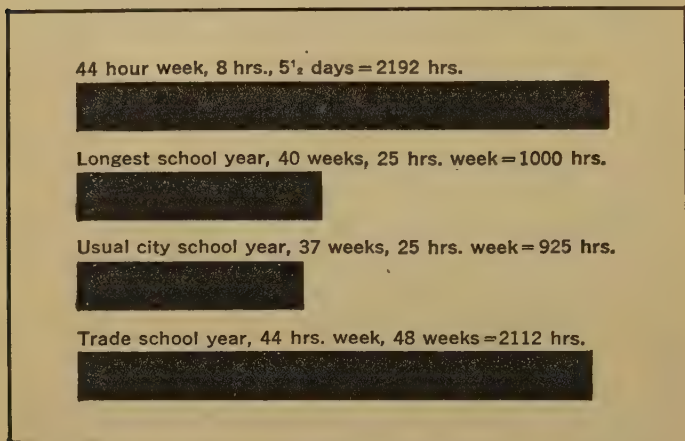


FIG. 7. THE TRADE-SCHOOL YEAR AND THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL YEAR COMPARED

Three types of schools were provided for, namely (1) the all-day or continuation school, (2) the part-time day school, and (3) the evening school. The all-day industrial school is usually two years in length. In this type of school a sound preparation for the skilled occupations is given, under conditions as to facilities and time that approach actual shop conditions. The part-time classes have approximately the same aims, but deal with those pupils who have already gone to work and can give but a few hours a week to vocational training. The evening school provides instruction for advanced workmen needing special instruction to increase their working efficiency, and for many helpers and assistants who need instruction of a more elementary character but fundamental to the work they are trying to do in

shops and factories. The agricultural instruction, similarly, is given in all three types of schools, but with a larger percentage of its pupils in the all-day school and courses. Coupled with all this work, where best organized, is a good guidance, placement, and follow-up service.

This new type of instruction promises to revolutionize industrial preparation in the United States, and to give us a very effective type of vocational education and placement for those who are to work in our factories, offices, shops, on the farms, and in the home-making occupations. The cost for providing this new form of educational service is as properly a charge upon the public revenue as is any other form of education now provided.¹ The Smith-Hughes Act has materially enlarged the scope of public education, and along new lines.

Adult education. Compared with many European lands, the United States, until quite recently, has done little in the matter of providing educational opportunities for those who are past the public school age. What has been done, until quite recently, has been chiefly the establishment of citizenship classes, efforts at the elimination of adult illiteracy, evening lectures in schoolhouses, farmers' institutes, and university extension courses. Quite recently a new demand for many new forms of education for adults has made itself felt, and it is probable that what has so far been accomplished marks only a good beginning of what the next quarter of a century is likely to witness in the extension of educational advantages among our people.

While courses for adults are almost certain to remain

¹ Herbert Hoover recently said of vocational education:

"If vocational education is worth while, certainly as a Nation we can afford the price of such education. Our only concern is to know that it is worth while. If it is, expenditure on account of such education is in the nature of an investment which will yield large dividends year to year through the progressive increase of labor, skill, and industrial efficiency."

subordinate in importance to the education of youth, the realization of a need for the development and extension of rational thinking among our people, especially along social, economic, and political lines, is almost certain to be such that we are likely to see the scope of our systems of public instruction gradually extended to include more and more of the forms of adult education now under private and institutional auspices.

The importance of adult education in a modern democratic form of government is not likely to be overestimated, and adequate provision for its encouragement under public control is not likely to be overlooked by the State. In such forms as agricultural instruction, home-economics extension work, rural-life improvement, university extension, and the extension of library advantages, our States have already begun to finance an extensive system of adult education, and those responsible for the administration of public school systems must be prepared to organize and direct such instruction when it is demanded of them by the communities which they serve.¹

A broad state purpose. All of the various extensions of the purposes and scope of public education which we have considered in this chapter manifest a purpose on the part of our people to provide, as rapidly as they can organize and finance the program, a wide extension of the scope of the training provided for life in our democracy. With the increasing wealth and intelligence of our people we are likely to see new forms of public instruction added, from time to time, as new national needs make such new instruction seem desirable. The needs of democracy are the opportunities of education.

¹ There is every reason to think that much of what is now done by our state universities will in time be passed down to the rising junior colleges and to the teachers' colleges to do, since by using these institutions many more people may be reached.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What do you think of the common argument that a state course of study for elementary schools tends to produce a uniformly trained output, and enables poor teachers to render better service in the schools?
2. Have you had any experience with uniform state courses of study that would indicate a different conclusion as to their formulation and use than the one expressed in this chapter?
3. At about what stage in the development of a state school system might inspection and approval of courses of study for high schools by the state university be of value?
4. Justify the distinction between schools or classes which the State will help communities to support, and schools or classes which are permitted but not aided.
5. What difference in state policy do the two types of classes stated in question 4 represent?
6. What will be the probable effect of the development of junior colleges on the character of the state school system? On the state university? On local school systems where developed?
7. What forces in our national life have operated to extend the years of compulsory schooling?
8. Answer the same question as 7 for part-time education.
9. State the arguments, from both education and industry, for part-time education laws.
10. Show how illiteracy and citizenship are as much national as state problems.
11. Show the relation of a good system of vocational education to national prosperity and contentment.
12. Show that a high wage scale and a high basis of living for the workers of a nation engaged in foreign trade are only possible to a country whose workers are well trained vocationally.
13. Show how the changes to the factory system and the growth of manufacturing cities have made compulsory education to 15 and 16 years of age a necessity.
14. State the argument, based on industrial and social conditions, for requiring the attendance at school of unemployed children up to 18 years of age.
15. Show the place and usefulness, in a State's system of public instruction, of a widely diffused public library system.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. What is the scope of the authorized school system of your State? What types of schools are authorized, but must be financed wholly locally?
2. What state control is there, in your State, over the subjects of the courses of study?
3. Is the use of the Bible in the public schools required or permitted in your State?

PROBLEMS

1. At the time the Vocational Education Act was proposed to Congress, it was stated that there were 25,000,000 persons, eighteen years of age or over, engaged in farming, manufacturing, and trade and transportation, not over 1 per cent of whom had had any adequate training for their work. It was estimated that proper training should increase their daily wage at least 25 cents. At the end of nine years under the Act there were 884,007 enrolled in vocational courses in the schools, and at a total cost to the Nation, the States, and the districts of \$20,951,497. From these figures, would vocational education seem to be a profitable venture?
2. Make a diagram to show both the vertical and the sidewise expansion of the public school system, and showing the approximate place, by years, of each addition to the school.

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CHAPTER VIII

STATE AND LOCAL FINANCING

Beginnings of taxation for schools. In the beginning of our educational history we created permanent endowment funds with the thought that the income from these would largely support the schools that would be needed. By about 1825 it may be said to have been clearly recognized by thinking men that the income from such funds would prove to be wholly inadequate, and that the only safe reliance for a system of state schools lay in the general and direct taxation of all property for their support. "The wealth of the State must educate the children of the State" then became a rallying cry, and the battle for direct property taxation for education was on in every Northern State. The rising cities often led the way in securing permission to tax for schools, as the new social problems they were called on to meet were such that they could not wait for the rural sections of the State to see the need for taxation for public education. Sometimes wards or districts within a city were first organized for taxing purposes, these being unwilling to wait for the city as a whole to see the need for schools.¹ Thus were school taxing districts organized, here and there, almost independently, all over our cities, townships, counties, and States, and later these districts were consolidated into the

¹ Detroit forms a good example of this condition. The first schools there were organized in the second ward, in 1838, but little further was done until 1841. The city by this time had a population of about 10,000, but with only 714 children in any kind of school. A campaign for schools was begun, with the result that the legislature of 1842 abolished the ward or district system in the city, and created a general city school system under a board of education.

general city, county, and state educational organization that we know to-day.

The idea underlying all general taxation is that of a pooling of effort for the provision and maintenance of what has come to be recognized as for the common good of all. The extent to which this pooling of effort takes place in behalf of education is determined in large part by the social vision of a people, and the extent to which they regard education as essential to the welfare of the State. Permissive local taxation, and later compulsory district taxation, mark the

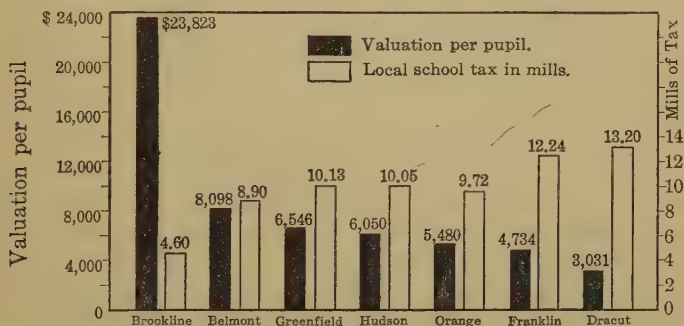


FIG. 8. INEQUALITIES IN ABILITY AND EFFORT IN THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS, IN SEVEN MASSACHUSETTS TOWNS

first steps in the pooling of effort to provide education, and the first step toward the public school idea. The people of these little self-constituted school districts agreed to organize under the School Law and to tax themselves to maintain a school, paying for the maintenance in proportion to the value of the property they possessed, and sharing in the benefits in proportion to the number of children each had to send to school. Some shared who did not pay, and some paid who did not share. It was a coöperative effort to maintain what was believed to be for the common good of the community and the welfare of the State. This was the

earliest form of general taxation provided for after the public school movement began, and it still remains the chief source of school revenue in our States, even though most of the conditions which once made it an equitable plan for the maintenance of schools have since passed away.

Improvements on district taxation. The first step in advance from district taxation was to town and township taxation, under which the people of a whole town (in the New England sense of the term) or a whole township agreed to share equally in the maintenance of all the schools of the town or township. This advance represented a distinctly broader conception as to the need for and purpose of education than did the district idea as to taxation which it displaced. Whatever may be the inequalities in taxing ability in a town or township, a general tax levied over the whole area smooths them out. The same smoothing out takes place in the case of a general city school tax, as compared with taxing by wards. The plan represents a pooling of resources and an equalization of tax rates over a larger area to maintain something conceived to be for the general good of all. One finds this form of town taxation well developed in Massachusetts, and this form of township taxation well developed in Indiana.

The next step in advance, in the evolution of a good system of school support, comes when the people of a county agree to pool the costs for education over the whole county. This form represents a still broader conception as to the importance of good schools generally than does either the town or the township plan, as the pooling of effort now is over a much larger area and naturally smooths out many more inequalities. Figure 9 shows this result very well.

It is this form of county-wide taxation for the support of schools which is one of the strong features of the California school system, and one of the merits of the county-unit sys-

tem of school organization and administration as found in such county-unit States as Maryland, Louisiana, and Utah. Used in conjunction with other forms of taxation for education, county taxation is found in many Southern and

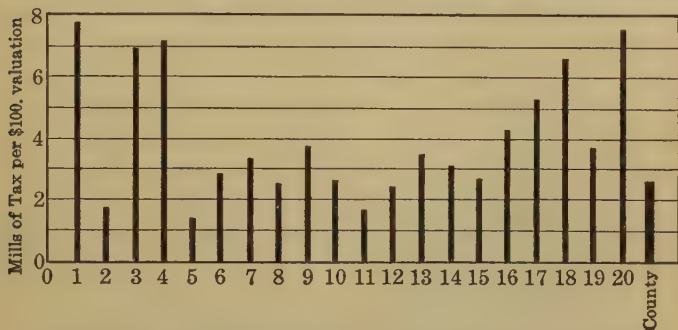


FIG. 9. TAX RATES FOR SCHOOLS, BY TOWNSHIPS, AND FOR THE COUNTY AS A UNIT

Western States, but it is seldom found in the North Atlantic or East North Central groups of States. Wherever found, it represents a distinct advance in the thinking of a people over district or township taxation as the main dependence for the support of schools. In many Southern and Western States this form of taxation exists side by side with district taxation on the one hand, and state taxation on the other.

State taxation a further advance. The next step in the evolution of a sound state system of school support comes when the people of a whole State decide to pool, in part at least, the cost for education over the whole State, and levy a state school tax to aid the counties, townships, towns, and districts in their maintenance of schools. The advantages of a general state tax for schools over county taxation are the same in character as of a county school tax over town or township taxation, and these in turn over district taxation

— it smooths out inequalities better, and makes possible a longer school term, better teachers, and a generally higher standard of education than is possible when each county is left to itself. The leveling effect of a general state tax for education may be seen from Figure 10.

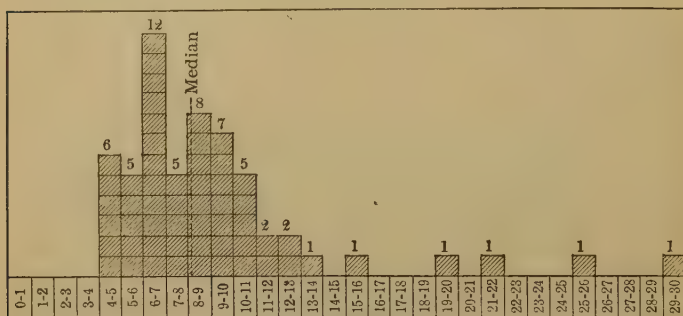


FIG. 10. VARIATIONS IN WEALTH IN FIFTY-EIGHT CALIFORNIA COUNTIES

Showing, for the fifty-eight counties, in thousands of dollars the wealth behind each child in average daily attendance in the schools. The median was approximately \$8100 — the state tax basis. On the county valuations shown above the California law requires a minimum county school tax of \$30 per pupil in average daily attendance to be levied.

Some form of state tax for schools is found in almost all our States, but liberal state taxation is more common in the East, South, and West than in the States of the Upper Mississippi Valley, where district taxation is still the main dependence of the schools.

The rise of taxing inequalities. A very marked characteristic of our national development, during the past three quarters of a century, has been the rise of taxing inequalities, and with their rise a need for a more general pooling of taxing effort for education has become more and more evident. The growth of cities with the consequent concentration of population and wealth, the spread of lines of transportation, the rapid extension of telegraph and telephone and power

lines, the creation of large industrial centers, the discovery and utilization of our hidden natural resources, and the development of costly winter and summer resorts with the resulting growth of recreational travel have all alike tended to create taxing inequalities of large proportions.¹

As a result of these changes what one community can do to-day with ease, other communities find it difficult or impossible to do for their children. Some communities, too, are to-day rapidly increasing their per-capita wealth, while in other communities there is an actual or a relative decrease, and in almost every State an increasing relative, if not an actual, impoverishment of certain communities is taking place. Yet in all these communities people live, children are born and need schooling, and the same needs exist, from a state and a national point of view, for the proper training of those who are to be the future citizens of the State and Nation.

Still more, the great industrial, economic, and social changes of the past half to three quarters of a century have brought about entirely new social, political, and vocational needs, and these in turn have changed education into a greater state and national interest than ever before in our history, and forced the State to assume a direction over education undreamed of in the days when public education first began. Both the scope and the cost of public education, too, have everywhere increased and will continue to increase. Better educational advantages than are to-day provided are needed by many communities. The demands of the State as to length of term, quality of teacher, scope of the school system, sanitary conditions, and compulsion to

¹ The provision of good schools generally throughout a State is too important an interest to permit of their character being determined by the fact that a railway or a power line decides to run through or around a school district, or by the presence or absence of a copper mine or a stone quarry, or by whether the district happens to have a good climate or not.

attend are almost certain to increase. Child welfare work has as yet only really begun. Better trained teachers and supervisors, and better salaries for teachers and school officers, are needed.

Effect of inequalities of tax on school support. As a result, the burden of the support of education, especially where there is still so large a dependence on district taxation and the old property tax as the chief reliance for school support, is greater to-day than many communities can meet. After levying the maximum tax for school support which the State will permit, they cannot meet the minimum requirements of the State School Law. As a means of support for a system of public instruction, suited to the needs of a modern State, the old property tax and district taxation, even when supplemented by some state aid, have largely broken down. The taxes now levied on farm property are almost confiscatory in character, yet the education provided for the farmer's children is far from being good enough.

The remedy lies not in cheaper schooling, but in larger taxing units and in different types of taxation. The costs of anything so manifestly for the common good of all should be much better equalized. This calls for a much larger proportion of state aid than is usually given, the substitution of county-unit taxation for township and district taxation, and the freeing of the larger cities from hampering restrictions as to how much they may supplement locally the state and county aid received.

New forms of taxation, and state aid. A few of our States have recently recognized the problem created by this rise of taxing inequalities and have begun the reform of their taxation system, with a view to lightening the burdens on real and personal property and bringing under taxation, direct or indirect, all forms of wealth and income which the State possesses. California, Massachusetts, New York,

and Wisconsin have been leaders in the movement, with New York probably nearest to the model plan proposed by the National Tax Association.¹ This plan uses the income tax, a series of business taxes, a property tax, a light tax on personal property, and no attempt to tax evidences of indebtedness. If the income tax is not used, then a small tax on evidences of indebtedness (intangibles) is needed in its place.

The state aid for schools, too, has been materially increased in California, Massachusetts, and New York, the State in each case assuming a larger proportion of the burden of the support of the school system maintained throughout the State. New York has come nearest to the model here, again, in that a common minimum program of education for all, based on a state-wide study of school costs, is guaranteed by the State. Whatever local funds, based on a defined tax rate, lack to supply this common minimum program the State supplies from state funds.²

That from forty to sixty per cent of the annual maintenance cost for elementary and secondary education ought to come from state sources, under modern conditions of wealth distribution, probably would be agreed to by most students of educational finance.³ That the amount so supplied to-day is anything like this, Figure 11 shows clearly is not the case. The large bulk of the remainder needed, whether a county unit for school administration is in use or not, ought to come from general county taxation, and what

¹ Made in a Report in September, 1918, and printed in the *Proceedings of the National Tax Association*, for 1919, pp. 426-70.

² For a brief explanation of the New York plan, see the author's *State School Administration*, pp. 480-83, and for a more detailed explanation see Paul R. Mort's *State Support for Public Schools*, 104 pp. New York, 1926.

³ Swift, one of our closest students of the problem, thinks 65 to 75 per cent. See his article on "Existing Educational Inequalities," in *American School Board Journal*, vol. 60, pp. 29-30. (May, 1920.)

is then needed to cover additional needs — largely extensions of the scope of education in the cities — should then be raised by city-district tax levies. The costs for school buildings and their maintenance are practically universally left to the unit of school administration — district, town, township, city, or county — in which they are located.

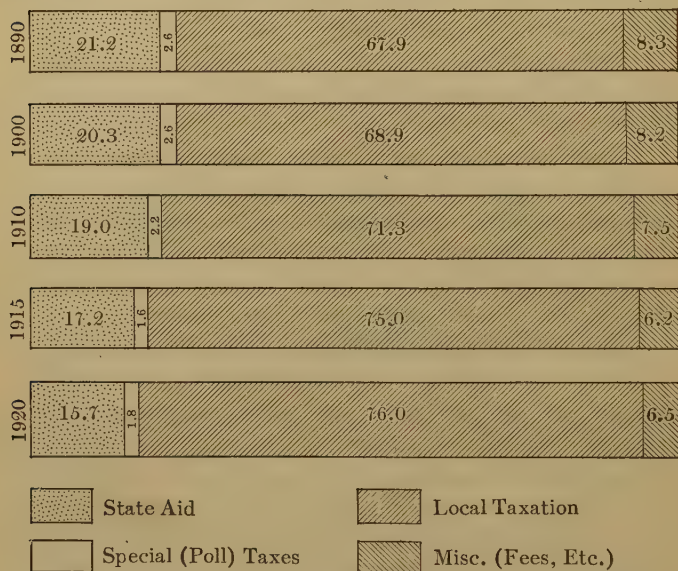


FIG. 11. SOURCES OF REVENUE FOR SCHOOL SUPPORT, 1890-1920

Tax levies, and their legal limits. In Chapter II we gave a few supreme court decisions to show the state nature of education, and especially to show how schools have been established, in the constitutions, the law, and the decisions of our highest courts, as institutions of the State to carry out a state purpose. In the chapters which immediately followed we sketched briefly the administrative machinery

which the State has created to see that this state purpose is carried out, and in the last preceding chapter we showed how the scope of the school system that is required or permitted also has been determined by the State. Only as schools are created in conformity with state law may they be established at all at public expense.

In a similar way the State has fixed the kinds and limits of taxation that must and may be levied, either by the State or by any of its subdivisions, to maintain the system of schools established under state authority by school districts, and in conformity with state laws. This has been done that the State may safeguard the minimum amount of schooling that must be provided and the minimum amount of school tax that must be raised. Beyond these compulsory minima the State has quite generally established maxima as well, that the interests of the taxpayer also may be conserved.

The question of fiscal independence. When we pass to a consideration of district taxation, and particularly to the city district, we frequently find that this fundamental principle of safeguarding the educational needs of its future citizens has not been cared for by the State. Instead, the State not infrequently leaves to a local taxing body — city council, rather than to the school board or the people — the final determination of the amount of school tax that is to be levied by the district for annual maintenance. At times this local control extends not only to the amount of school tax to be raised, but even to the imposition, by city charter or council decree, of absurd limitations on school expenditures. Practice in this respect varies not only as between States, but within States as well. The school board, having evolved out of a committee of the council, seeks to be independent of council control; the council, as the original town representative body, seeks to retain a control that is fast

passing from it. As our people have come to appreciate the fundamental importance of public education for our national progress, there has been an increasing tendency to end this historical condition, and to give — usually within fixed legal limits — full financial independence to town and city school boards.

Where full legal autonomy for the schools has been attained, as in many cities by charter provision and in some States by general law, the school board may demand, always within the fixed legal limits, the funds needed in its judgment for the proper maintenance of the schools, and may expend such funds without interference by the mayor, council, or other city or county official or body, so long as the purposes of such expenditures are authorized by general law. This position is known as fiscal independence, though between this position and complete dependence on the mayor and city council, or the county board of supervisors in case of a county school district, there are many intermediate positions. This independence has been the cause of loud lamentations on the part of some mayors, councilmen, and students of the theory of government, who have demanded “unity of the city budget and tax rate.”

Recent studies of the question¹ have shown that the final cost under the two plans is not essentially different, as practically the same amount is spent under each plan. Under the fiscal independence plan, however, a larger percentage of the funds raised is spent on general control, maintenance of plant, capital outlay, and instructional supplies, while in the fiscally dependent cities the amount spent on salaries and jobs is increased, personal service bulks larger, and bonded indebtedness is materially increased. Actually, then, fiscal independence, instead of being costly, gives the

¹ The studies of Frasier and McGaughey in particular. See References, at close of this chapter.

taxpayer better returns for his money and tends to keep ultimate costs down. These studies show why the city politician and job chaser do not like the plan, and why mayors so desire to annex the schools to the city as a department of the city government. The writers on municipal government have followed a theory, rather than the facts.

Conserving the interests of the State. All proper interests of the taxpayers may be conserved by the requirement of a budget of needs, fixed legal limits within which school boards retain complete fiscal independence, and additional limits which may be approached by vote of the people of the school district. There is no reason whatever for attaching the control of schools to the patronage departments of city government, and many reasons, both historical and governmental, why this should not be done. Very fortunately, indeed, our schools were created as instrumentalities of the State, much as were the courts, instead of being left under local control and at the mercy of local political interests.

In practice, however, the conception of education as a state interest is not so clear in the minds of the bulk of the electorate, and the best interests of our school systems, especially in our cities, are at times subordinated to local political expediency. Nor has the State as yet, except here and there, assumed its proper rôle, either in legislation or in administration, as the protector of the educational rights of the children of our cities. There is, however, a growing consciousness of state origin and authority among those responsible for and interested in the conduct of school systems, and a growing tendency to appeal to the courts for the protection of educational rights and the securing of adequate maintenance funds, and to the legislature for laws that guarantee schools that independence of position intended for them, along with the judiciary, by the framers of the constitutions of our American States.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. If the per-capita income from a permanent state school fund is small, what would be a better use of it than distribution on a per-capita basis?
2. Why have the cities always led the way for increased taxation for and improvement of schools?
3. Could you measure the social vision of a people by the extent to which they have pooled educational costs?
4. Show that taxing by wards in a city is comparable to taxing by school districts in a county, and the reverse.
5. How do you explain the heavy dependence on district taxation in the States of the Upper Mississippi Valley?
6. What are the arguments for a county poll tax, the proceeds to go for schools?
7. Why is the maintenance generally of a uniformly good standard of public education much more important in a democratic State than under a monarchical form of government?
8. Is the answer to 7 an argument for a wide pooling of the costs for education in a democratic State?
9. State the argument for the State fixing rather high minima for school taxation.
10. Would the minimum need to be as high under a county-unit form of taxation? Why?
11. Can the schools of a city be spoken of properly as a department of the city government? Why?
12. Why is the state authorization of schools and state control of the main features of their work clearer in the minds of the courts than in the minds of the citizenship generally?

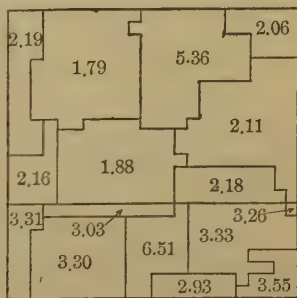
TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. How are the public schools of your State financed?
2. How has the Permanent School Fund in your State been obtained, what use is made of it, and what is the per-capita value of the yearly grants from it?
3. What is the Smith-Hughes fund, and for what is it used in your State?
4. Is there any special state aid for needy districts in your State?
5. What percentages of the cost for annual school maintenance, in your State, come from each different taxation source?

6. What legal provisions are there, in your State, as to budgets and tax levies for schools?

PROBLEMS

1. A rural school has a census of 27 and an average daily attendance of 16. State aid is worth \$3.40 per census child, and the remainder of the cost comes from district taxation. The State requires a six months' school, and a minimum teacher's salary of \$80 a month. What is the state aid worth, and about what will it buy?
2. A school district in Illinois has, within its borders, a station and a double-track main-line railway, through main telegraph and telephone lines, and a high-tension trunk power line. From the local taxation of this corporate property the district obtains 58 per cent of the cost of its one-room school, and from state aid it receives 8 per cent more. An adjoining school district has only farm land to tax for schools assessed at the same rate as the other district. Each district spends \$1000 a year for its school. Show the results of this situation, in figures, for the two schools, and indicate the remedy.
3. One Illinois township had 16 school districts, each levying the district tax rate for schools, per \$100 of assessed valuation, shown in the adjoining figure. Assume that each district maintained a one-room school, that each raised \$1000 for school support by a district tax, that there were no delinquent taxes, and that the total enrollment for the 16 districts was 192.



- (a) Calculate the rate necessary to raise the same amount of money by one common township tax, by calculating, for the districts,

$$\text{Assessed valuation} = \frac{\$1000}{\text{Rate}}$$

- (b) Calculate the cost for a consolidated school, with 6 teachers and 8 busses, a bus costing 50 per cent of a teacher.

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CHAPTER IX

THE STATE AND THE TEACHER

A demand for trained teachers. The whole American development in teacher training is easily comprehended in the light of the history of the growth of educational theory in this country. The first half of the nineteenth century in the United States was clearly the period of the knowledge conception of education. The purpose of schooling was the mastery of knowledge, and the work of the teacher was to assign tasks, hear recitations, and impose order. Visiting committees of school trustees inspected the teaching by having the pupils spell, do sums, and recite facts. For this type of school a small modicum of knowledge, obtained in the common schools and the academies of the time, and the ability to keep order, were far more useful than any theory as to the educational process could possibly have been. It was not until after the advent of the new Pestalozzian conceptions as to the nature and content and method of education, first made popular with us by the work of Sheldon at Oswego, after 1860, that the basis for a new type of teacher training was laid.

A new psychological procedure now was introduced, and the ability to teach scientifically superseded the older ability to organize and discipline a school as the prime qualification for a teaching position. The normal school and teacher training now were accepted as desirable, and by 1880 the normal-trained teacher began to be markedly in evidence. During the great reorganization of elementary education which took place, between about 1860 and 1890, the normal school and teacher training became firmly fixed in the minds of the American people as necessary additions to public

education, and since 1900 the number of state teacher-training institutions has materially increased. So deep, in fact, has the new interest in teacher training recently become that a number of our States, in an effort to provide some form of teacher training for as many teachers as possible, have tried various more or less temporary expedients¹ to supplement the regular work of their normal schools.

Yet, despite all the efforts that have been made, extending now over nearly a century in time, the percentage of trained teachers in the United States is low, and in a number of States it is very low,² as is shown in Figure 12. Despite recent advances, probably not over one half of the teachers in the United States to-day have had what has been designated as "standard training."³ Of the other one half, many have not had high-school graduation, and some have not gone beyond the elementary-school course.

¹ Such as summer 2-6 week training classes, high-school training courses, county normal schools, and similar means.

² Based on a comparatively recent study, made by the Research Division of the National Education Association (*Research Bulletin*, vol. 1, no. 1, table 20, p. 43), which showed conditions at that time (1923) for 43 States. For the remaining 5 States no statistics were available.

³ In the study just cited, the number of teachers with standard training — that is, high-school graduation plus two years of professional training — was estimated as 44 per cent, in 1923, for the entire country, and with most of the trained teachers in the schools of the cities.

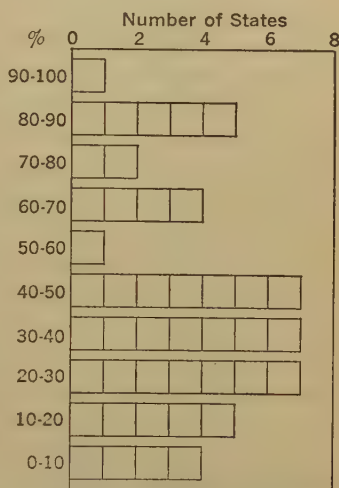


FIG. 12. PERCENTAGES OF TRAINED TEACHERS (STANDARD TRAINING) IN FORTY-THREE STATES

Of the total number of teachers employed, about 50 per cent of the elementary-school and about 75 per cent of the high-school teachers are employed in the city school districts, and it is in the cities that most of the trained teachers are employed. In our village and rural schools, where teachers are mostly without professional supervision, the great bulk of the untrained and poorly educated teachers are found.¹

What a State can afford. To-day, the teaching force of a State is largely determined by the efforts which the State has made to handle the problem for the State as a whole, and by what the State can afford to have. Whenever the finances of a State are such that the salary schedules for teachers warrant proper training, there trained teachers are to be found, but whenever a State's finances are inadequate, and in consequence salaries are so low that standard training is not warranted, the percentage of trained teachers naturally will not be large. The economic returns and the professional satisfactions incident to teaching must be such as to warrant obtaining standard training or it will not be obtained.

The problem of providing an adequately educated and trained teaching force for the schools of a State is essentially a state, and not a local problem. The problem is too big for cities and counties to handle. While some training is better than no training, and partial local training may be

¹ "Over half a million children are still taught by teachers who have never studied beyond the elementary school; approximately three million children by teachers who have never been graduated from a high school; approximately two and a half millions by beginning teachers, who work mostly without any supervision; and about the same number by teachers too young to be allowed to vote. In the high schools of the United States, taking the country over, and as a whole, from half of the teachers in the smaller schools to a third of the teachers in the accredited schools have not had a four-year college course -- the minimum accepted standard preparation for teaching in the high school." (E. P. Cubberley: *Introduction to the Study of Education*, pp. 450-51.)

taken as a temporary substitute for complete state training, the tendency has been for the States to assume the burden and to provide for teacher training in the proper way.¹ For all the larger and more populous States, at least, we are clearly moving in the direction of the State providing a number of properly located and properly financed teacher-training institutions, adequate for the training of all the teachers needed for the schools of the State.

How long it will take our States to provide a trained teacher for every classroom, under a general state plan, will be determined almost entirely by the financial attractions offered and the living and working conditions made incident to teaching. That it is possible to attract the desired type of men and women back to teaching has been shown by the experience of a few States which have seriously attempted to solve the problem.

Related problems. Closely connected with the problem of training teachers for a State are a number of related problems which need attention, and to these we next turn as parts of the problem of the relation of the State to the teaching staff. These relate to certification, appointment, pay, tenure, pensions, and the adequate supervision of the after training of the teacher. Control of the conditions surrounding these elements in any comprehensive state program is too important for them to be left wholly to local action. These are primarily state problems, and represent phases of school administration that should be gathered up and placed under state oversight and control.

¹ This has meant a tendency to do away with the high-school training class, and to provide a sufficient number of properly located state normal schools, or teachers' colleges, to train the number of teachers needed by the State, and to finance these schools properly. During the past quarter of a century the revenues of the state training schools have increased nine and a half times, while the number of graduates has increased but three and a half times.

These problems not only are too large for local authority to handle well, but their solution calls for that common and uniform legislation that only a State can provide. The development of an adequate state policy in relation to the teacher, then, means the building up of strong centralized control of the training and certification of teachers, and the formulation of an intelligent and forward-looking state policy with reference to all the other factors mentioned as conditioning the work of a teacher.

Certificating the teacher. While certification began practically as a strictly local function, because the strength of the district system and the weakness of the state authorities made it necessary to decentralize the work, the tendency, within the past three decades, has been clearly toward gathering up all certificating powers and centralizing all authority in the matter with the State.¹ With the extension of professional preparation among teachers, and the development of a professional consciousness among them, there has come an increasing demand for certificates of broader validity than towns, townships, or counties, and for the elimination as well of unnecessary barriers to the freedom of good teachers within the State. This demand has set in motion forces which have tended alike to raise standards and break down local certificating systems, and to cause the certification of teachers to be taken over by the state authorities and made a function of the state educational department. In some States the local and state certificating systems exist side by side, with the state system gradually superseding the local system.

Certification on the basis of passing a local examination is the oldest method, and still persists, for one or more types

¹ Whereas only three States issued all certificates to teach from the State office, in 1898, and but five States in 1903, there were fifteen such States in 1908, and thirty in 1925.

of certificates, in most of our States. The tendency, however, clearly is in the direction of minimizing the importance of the written examination, either local or state, and of increasing the recognition given to evidences of academic and professional preparation made in recognized institutions of learning. In shaping certification requirements, especially for the more advanced forms of teaching credentials, evidences of training in normal schools, teachers' colleges, and universities ought to have a distinct premium placed upon them. Teachers who have secured standard training, and who have taught successfully for a short trial period, ought to be given certificates of general validity throughout a State, and might well have their certificates recognized for inter-state movement as well. It should be recognized that the evolution of a complete state system naturally involves a higher standard in teacher training and salary schedules than is necessary where a State operates under local certifying systems.

The purpose and function of certification. The purpose of all certification requirements is to insure the child a properly prepared teacher on the one hand, and to protect the State against the employment of incompetents and a wasting of the proceeds of taxation on the other. Just what is meant by these statements, in the different States, is wholly relative to the general professional standards in force and the economic resources of the people. In a way, the whole problem of what is possible by way of standards goes back to the general scheme of educational organization, taxation for education, and the apportionment plan employed by the State. The certification of teachers is only one part of a general state problem that includes proper educational organization, a sound taxation system, adequate support for schools, well-worked-out teachers' salary laws, and the right facilities for training teachers.

The education and training of teachers, their examination and certification, the suspension or revocation of certificates for cause, the salary schedules provided, the supervision of instruction, the success teachers attain in their work, and the final retirement and pensioning of the teacher are all parts of one large state problem. The work of the State, so far as legislation is concerned, is so to shape teacher-training facilities, administrative conditions, salary-schedule laws, and all requirements as to the certification of both new and experienced teachers as to develop the most highly professional body of instructors for the schools of the State that is possible with the money at hand. As fast as conditions warrant such action, too, the requirements for certification should be increased, and whenever increased salary schedules become possible increased competency should be called for.

State control of tenure. The unit for employment, in America, has for long been the local school district, town, or city, and dependence has been placed on laymen to estimate the fitness and competency of prospective teachers. The low standards which have for so long prevailed as to training, certification, and pay have tended to continue small units for employment, low salaries, and uncertain tenure. The natural result of such conditions has been legislation forbidding any contract with a teacher extending beyond the end of the fiscal year, and teachers have been automatically out of employment at the close of each school year.¹ The burden of securing reemployment has rested with the teacher, rather than the burden of dismissal with the school board.

¹ Such a condition applies to no other form of public servant — policemen, firemen, city-hall employees, elevator operators, stenographers, clerks, waterworks employees. While it is perhaps easier to dismiss such employees for cause, none of these groups is automatically out of a job at the close of each fiscal year.

This condition, naturally, has been resented by teachers, and a movement to tie the hands of boards of education through life-tenure legislation has been the natural result. The State, as the controlling head of the school system, has been appealed to by the teachers for protection from arbitrary and unintelligent action by boards of education, with the result that a number of States have enacted laws which give teachers virtual life tenure in the schools. From the ease with which legislators pass life-tenure laws, at the request of teachers' organizations, one might easily gain the idea that the schools exist largely to provide positions for teachers. The children in the schools, for whose education the schools are maintained, often seem not to have been considered in the process.

A state policy as to employment and tenure. That our laws relating to the employment of teachers and teacher tenure need revision there can be no question. That yearly reemployment is both unsatisfactory and unjust to teachers, and that the effect upon the teaching force and in turn upon the schools is injurious, cannot be doubted. The results of full life tenure, on the other hand, are almost certain in time to be even worse. There is no necessity for our having either, since between the two extremes there is a middle ground which is fair alike to teachers, to the children, and to the public which pays the bills; namely, probationary employment, followed by indeterminate tenure. Indeterminate tenure following a probationary period guarantees the teacher life tenure during efficient service, lays a proper basis for the improvement of teachers while at work and for a general salary and pensioning schedule, and at the same time guarantees the public that a capable and progressive school system can be maintained.

A new teacher entering the service of a city or a county school system should enter on probationary employment,

at the completion of which, if satisfactory, the teacher should be elected to indeterminate tenure,¹ after which no yearly election would be called for, so long as the teacher met the general requirements of the State as to professional study and improvement. The teacher then would be given virtual life tenure, so long as she, or he, did not fall under some of the legal causes for dismissal,² as provided by state law. In case of dismissal for cause there should be provision for appeal to a state educational board,³ whose decision should be final, but no appeal to the courts.

In States not providing for such tenure plan, there should be some legal limitation placed on the action of school trustees and boards of education to compel them to give teachers proper and early notice of non-retention, and to conduct the annual election of teachers before a certain date. The notice of dismissal should state reasons, and, if based on incompetency in service, should have been preceded by some notice as to elements of weakness, and a reasonable opportunity be given for improvement. The date for notice, and for the annual election, should never be later than the last day the schools are in session, and in cities not later than the first day of June. The nomination of all teachers and school officers for election, and all recommendations for

¹ After this no yearly election would be necessary, the teacher being continued in employment from year to year, so long as the teacher holds a valid certificate to teach, meets the general requirements of the State as to yearly validation of certificates, and also meets any general state or local requirements as to professional study and improvement.

² These would be immorality, insubordination, willful neglect of duty, and probably certain well-defined cases of unprofessional conduct, to which would be added evident unfitness for teaching.

³ This appeal board might be the state board of education, or the latter might be empowered to create a special appeal board, composed largely of school men and women, who would have power to review the evidence and affirm or reverse the decision. This would settle the question on educational grounds, instead of on a legal basis.

dismissal, as involving what are clearly expert professional functions, should also be placed by law in the hands of the city or county superintendent of schools. These are desirable limitations for a State to impose on the "hire-and-fire" liberties of school boards composed of laymen.

State control of appointment, tenure, and salaries. The interests of the State in the matter of appointment and tenure, as we have worked out our state systems of public instruction in the United States, are limited but definite ones. The State is not and should not be interested in the selection of teachers of any particular political belief or religious or social points of view. We have never associated our teaching service with that of the army, the police, the governing political party, or any religious belief. The interests of the State, with us, lie rather in the training, certification, and the character of those who teach, and in protecting those who enter the teaching service from being made victims of social, political, religious, or racial influences in the districts or cities where they are employed.

To this end the State may very properly regulate training and certification, and may well refuse to sanction the certification or employment of any person not properly prepared for effective school service. The State may also very properly determine, by general law, the conditions of employment, the probationary period, the methods for determining teaching success, the form of supervision, the degree of permanence in tenure, the methods for removing a teacher once employed, the minimum-salary schedule that must be paid teachers and school officers in different types of schools, and the general form of final retirement and the rate of pensioning applicable in each case. In legislating on all these matters the point of view should be primarily that of the children for whom the schools have been created and are maintained, and only secondarily that of the teachers employed.

Pensions for teachers. As approximately two thirds of our States have by now enacted some form of pension legislation for teachers, as over one half of the States have made pension benefits available for all teachers, and as over one third of the teachers of the United States are now protected by some type of pension system, the general pensioning of all teachers may be regarded as an almost certain future development in educational legislation.

The provision of retiring allowances for teachers is by no means a benevolence, but must be regarded as deferred pay which has been earned, since the public almost never pays for any public service what that service is really worth.¹ With the contributive principle incorporated, the pension is in part purchased by the teacher. In effect a sound teacher retirement allowance plan is a form of compulsory insurance, paying an annuity for life instead of a death benefit, and administered and partly financed by the State. It tends to attract and retain capable teachers, tends to increase teaching efficiency, protects the children in the schools from being taught by teachers of advanced age who are no longer efficient, and actually costs the public, under properly built salary schedules, little or nothing.

Training of teachers in service. Although the day of the unprepared teacher, in most of our States, probably is passing, this fact will not relieve us wholly of the problem of continued training, as normal school and college graduates will still need to be provided with means for improvement while in service to keep them abreast of educational progress. From the state end the problem is, however, less acute as teachers become better trained, and the burden is shifted in part from the State to the city or county-unit school system

¹ See *Research Bulletin*, vol. 2, no. 3, May, 1924 (N.E.A.), on *Teachers' Retirement Allowances*, for more detailed information as to the problem of pensions for teachers.

employing the teacher. After all that a State can do to train a new teacher, the completion of the process must still take place in the classroom, under competent and helpful supervision. Some one must see that the teacher is applying the principles she has been taught, and that she is improving her technique with a view to becoming a master teacher. Practice alone does not make perfect, it is practice guided by skillful supervision that is effective.

While the problem of training teachers in service is becoming increasingly local in character, there nevertheless is much that the State can do through legislation that will help shape conditions so as to make the problem easier of solution. In the first place, adequate opportunities for teacher training should be provided, in state institutions, coupled with salary schedules that will place a premium on attendance at them. Sound certification legislation also can do much to stimulate in-service training by making this a prerequisite for the higher grades of certificates. Pay schedules can be arranged so as to offer a reward to the teacher who keeps to the front in professional progress. A good form of teacher-tenure law could be made to serve also as an incentive to in-service preparation. Legislation that will build up large enough supervisory units to be effective also would be of material assistance.

The purpose of the State in all such legislation relating to the improvement of teachers in service is to try to ensure some little betterment each year, on the part of all teachers, as a condition to continuing in the teaching work. The more highly educated and trained a teacher is, and the more special the line of work taught, the less important this improvement in service probably becomes, and certain classes of teachers might be exempted by general rule from the requirement, or the requirement for such classes might be changed in character, but for the great mass of classroom

teachers some professional reading and study each year is most desirable and may well be insisted upon.

The function of the State. The State stands here as the guardian of the educational rights of children, and as such may very properly legislate on many matters relating to the teacher in the schools, leaving to cities, counties, and other local governing districts only discretionary powers within the limits laid down by the State. The State, then, may very properly determine, by general law, the education and training which teachers for any class of school must have, the types and validity of their teaching credentials, the conditions of their employment, the minimum salary schedules that must be in force for teachers and school officers, the requirements that teachers in service must meet with reference to continued preparation for teaching efficiency, and the general form of final retirement and the rate of pensioning applicable to each type of teacher. In legislating on all these matters the point of view should be primarily that of the children for whom the schools have been created and are maintained, and only secondarily that of the teachers employed.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Show how the introduction of Pestalozzian ideas called for a new technique of instruction.
2. Explain the absence of trained teachers in the rural districts of our States.
3. Show the close relation of economic rewards in teaching to a trained teaching force.
4. It has been proposed that subsidies be offered for attendance at normal schools, as a means of attracting the desired type of men and women back to teaching. What do you think of this proposal? Can you suggest a better plan?
5. What stage, in the evolution of a state certificating system, does a State occupy when all teachers must obtain certificates by passing a written county examination, with ques-

tions prepared uniformly for all counties by the State, but the papers graded and the certificates issued for all by the counties?

Answer the same question as 5 but with uniform state questions, state grading, and certificates issued by the counties on instructions from the State office.

6. Show how the continuance of the district system tends to perpetuate low-grade teachers' certificates and low standards in teacher training, because of economic reasons.
7. Show why life tenure, given to one early in life, is likely to be a misfortune from the point of view of growth and efficiency.
8. Why, after a teacher has proved efficient for say five years, is it unsafe to assume that this same person will be an efficient teacher after a lapse of fifteen years more?
9. What are the strong and weak points, as you see them, in the state-tenure plan proposed in this chapter?
10. Show that the interests of teachers, in the matter of tenure, are secondary to the interests of the children in the schools.
11. If increased salary and increased competency should go hand in hand, show that the fixing of standards for the certification of teachers is an excellent place for the exercise of the constructive intelligence of those responsible for state educational progress.
12. What is meant by the contributive principle in teachers' pensions?
13. What meanings and significance do you see in the recent increased attendance at all kinds of summer-school instruction?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Read the chapter on teacher training, in any recent state school survey, and list the conditions found and recommendations made.
2. List the certification requirements for superintendents and supervisory officers in some State that requires such.
3. Has there been a tendency to centralize teacher certification in your State, within recent years, and if so, to what extent?
4. What is the nature of the teacher pension plan, in your State?

PROBLEMS

1. A State has a total population of approximately 2,000,000, and a total school enrollment of approximately 400,000, a high school enrollment of 60,000 included. The State employs 10,000 teachers for elementary schools, and 3000 for high schools. Of the teachers employed, 15 per cent of the elementary and 10 per cent of the high-school force are new each year. The State has two state normal schools, and one state university. The two normal schools graduate about 400 teachers each year, and the university prepares about 150 high-school teachers each year.

Analyze this situation, state just what is the teacher-training problem here, and outline a solution.

2. A new state certification law is proposed for a State that would require all graduates of the normal schools and the colleges to pass a county teachers' examination before being given certificates to teach, would give the state educational office the duty of grading all the answer papers of such candidates, would provide for two grades of elementary-school certificates instead of three, would provide for separate certificates for teaching in high schools, would give all teachers permanent tenure after four years of service, would base all salary schedules on years served, would require evidence of some professional study each year and study in summer sessions one year in three, and would provide a differential in salaries in favor of men teachers.

Evaluate this law, and indicate which features are good, and which are bad.

3. Outline the elements of a good state pension law for school teachers. (Almack and Lang, Cubberley, Furst and Kandel, National Education Association, Prosser.)
4. A state law is proposed that would require every teacher to give evidence as to having read, each year, two professional books, selected from an approved state list, and to attend summer session for at least six weeks one year in three, as a condition for the validation of the certificate for teaching for the following year.

Evaluate this law, and suggest any additions or changes that would improve it.

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CHAPTER X

GENERAL STATE CONTROL

Rise of school-building control. Until quite recently the erection of a schoolhouse has been considered as entirely a local matter. Being paid for locally, its type and character was regarded as entirely a matter of local concern. This complete local liberty has led to the erection of many poor and inadequate school buildings, the cost for which has at times interfered with the proper maintenance of schools. Especially in the rural districts have many cheap and inadequate buildings been erected. Every school-housing survey has revealed waste in schoolhouse construction, as well as the existence of many improperly built, unsanitary, and unfit structures.¹

As the standardization of schoolhouse construction has proceeded, the need for some form of state oversight of local school authorities, in the matter of schoolhouse construction, has gradually become evident. The result has been legislation, all relatively recent, which has extended county or state oversight and control. The first legislation related to town and rural schoolhouses, and merely required the approval of the county superintendent of schools before new buildings could be erected. Another early step was the

¹ "The rural school, from the standpoint of health and general fitness for its important use, is the worst type of building in the whole country, including not only all types of buildings used for human beings, but also those used for livestock and domestic animals. Rural schools are, on the average, less adequate for their use than prisons, almshouses, asylums, stables, dairy barns, pig-pens, chicken-houses, or dog-kennels are for their uses." (T. D. Wood: "Child Welfare and Rural Schools"; in *School and Society*, vol. 2, p. 591. A report on existing conditions.)

formulation of standards as to what should enter into a good schoolhouse. The next step was general legislation relating to heating and ventilation, lighting arrangements, room temperatures, egress from doors, construction of stairways, provision of fire escapes, and the location of the heating plant. Following these came regulations or legislation relating to drinking facilities, provision of blackboards, classroom arrangements, the general character of the site, privies and toilet facilities, and general sanitary conditions. By 1915 a number of States had enacted laws relating to these matters, and three States had enacted complete State Building Codes which laid down rather detailed provisions as to just how school buildings should and should not be constructed.

The State's proper function. Since 1915 legislation regulating the construction of schoolhouses has gone forward rapidly, and a number of States now have rather detailed Building Codes, while still other States exercise some form of state oversight and approval of new plans. The tendency recently has been marked for the State to regulate, in some detail, the location, construction, interior arrangement, sanitation, and fire-resistance qualities of the local school plant, and to extend sanitary control even to the condemnation of existing school buildings.

If we keep in mind the principle that it is the business of the State to set standards, below which communities shall not be allowed to drop, and that the State must determine the minimum conditions under which instruction may be permitted, the duty of the State in the matter of school-house control will become clear. With the newer construction standards,¹ and the increased cost for school buildings

¹ Great changes in standards have taken place during the past quarter of a century. Wood has largely given place to concrete and brick; the lighting has been changed from two sides to one, and so banked as to distribute it

and education generally, it is clearly the right and the duty of the State to guard against waste in expenditures and unsafe construction. The State may then, very properly, require of communities that any school building they may erect shall be structurally sound, and that, in such details as classrooms and special rooms, lighting and heating arrangements, ventilation, hallways, staircases, swing of doors, cloakroom and toilet facilities, plumbing and water supply, provision against fire, and sanitary arrangements, the building shall meet the minimum standards, as formulated by general law or regulation, for a school building of its particular type and class. The State may also very properly formulate certain general requirements as to site, play facilities, location, and placement of the building.

On the other hand, the State should not attempt to control the shape, form, artistic appearance, extra facilities, or cost. If a community desires to exceed the minimum standards set by the State it should be allowed to do so, and departures from a general plan or type ought to be permitted freely, since out of such experimentation much of value is evolved. The work of the State, here as elsewhere, is to enforce minimum standards,¹ and not to prevent variation and progress and artistic development.

Health and physical welfare. Closely connected with the movement for better schoolhouse construction and sani-

better; the heating and ventilation have been greatly improved; much better artificial lighting has been provided; many new forms of desks and tables have been introduced; the cleaning is done more thoroughly, and the building is more sanitary; the drinking fountain has supplanted the drinking cup and the water pail; the toilet facilities have been vastly changed in character and usefulness; and in dozens of other ways the comfort, convenience, sanitation, and attractiveness of school buildings have been enhanced.

¹ Cities employing a school architect might well be exempted from such state supervision, so long as the structural requirements of the state law were met.

tation has been a general movement in behalf of some state direction, oversight, and control of the health and physical development of the pupils in the schools. Since about the end of the last century, the movement has grown in importance. The appalling revelations of the army-draft medical examinations¹ of 1917-18 came as a rude shock to our people, and gave a new stimulus to legislation making physical training and health work integral parts of public school work.² While much still remains to be done, much also has been accomplished.

A unified health and development program for the schools of our States is as yet largely in the making, though many efforts of importance are under way. While the development has been somewhat haphazard, and there has been much less correlation between possible health agencies³ than is desirable, certain conclusions have been reached which indicate that in its final form our States will require the inclusion of at least the following elements in any state-wide plan:

1. Schoolhouse sanitation, dealing with the construction, care, upkeep, and sanitary condition of schoolhouses.
2. Physical education, involving a graded series of exercises that will reach all children of school age, with corrective work for those who need such attention.
3. Health supervision, including here the work of the school

¹ In the first army draft, approximately one in four of young men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty were rejected for the army because of physical defects that would incapacitate them for the life of a soldier.

² Prior to 1915 only three States had laws relating to physical education. During the war years, 1917-18, eight additional States enacted legislation requiring physical education in the schools, and seventeen more States enacted similar laws before the close of the year 1921.

³ The public is not willing as yet to support two agencies, a city board of health and a city school health service, although some means of combining the two seems desirable.

- physician and school nurse, and embodying a program for guarding and guiding the children in health matters.
4. Health training and instruction, involving a broad constructive program of health teaching and instruction on the one hand, and training in health habits and in right attitudes toward personal health on the other.
 5. A teacher-training program in health and physical development, conducted in our normal schools and training colleges, for the purpose of training prospective teachers in educational hygiene, health knowledge, and health habits.

Such a state program, when organized, should be organized under the board of education,¹ and should be extended to all children in all schools — public, private, and parochial; the work being of such fundamental importance to us as a Nation that private and parochial schools should be required to follow the program and give the health and development work required for the public schools.

Such a program for health and physical development is an important part of a national program for increasing the wealth of a nation, and one that ultimately gives large financial returns. To decrease the number of those who are sick, and increase the number of those who are well, is adding to the productive capacity and the economic wealth of a people just as certainly as is an increase in the number of pure-bred stock, the miles of railway lines, going manufacturing concerns, or savings-bank deposits. Health work in the schools, while an added expense, of course, is nevertheless one that pays for itself many times over in the increased

¹ "Health supervision . . . cannot be a field of activity set aside by itself under the direction and control of any board or body outside the board of education. To advocate such a procedure shows a definite lack of vision as regards its possibilities in relation to health training and instruction, its responsibilities in physical education, its duties in the hygienic management of the daily school program, and its function in guiding and largely controlling the hygiene of the school plant." (Keene, C. H., *The Physical Welfare of the School Child*, page 81.)

health and wealth, the happiness and productive capacity of a people. It represents, also, the directive intelligence of the State exercised in one of its highest forms.¹

State control of textbooks. Originally the parents of children everywhere provided the books necessary for study in the schools. With the grading of instruction and the working out of graded courses of study, which came after about 1860 in the cities and about 1880 in the towns, there came a demand for uniformity in textbooks so that a common course of study might be taught to all children. Laws now were enacted requiring the people of the districts, towns, or cities to select and adopt textbooks which would be uniform for the schools, and, to prevent too frequent changes, adoption for four or five years usually was required.

This plan worked very well so long as people remained stationary, but nowhere do people move about as much as they do in the United States to-day. No European country has any such mobility in its population as now exists with us. As a consequence of this mobility there arose, particularly in the West and South, a popular demand for uniformity in textbooks so that new books need not be purchased when the parents moved from one district to another.

This resulted in a series of state laws requiring town, township, county, or state uniformity, as is shown in Figure 13. Everywhere in New England the town has remained the unit for adoption, with the township in New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and North Dakota. Five States have made the county the unit for adoption, while generally to the westward of the Mississippi River the State has been made the unit. Only in six western States,

¹ In 1921 a so-called Fess-Capper Bill was introduced in Congress which proposed to grant aid to the States, in proportion to the number of children of school age, to help provide physical training in the schools for all children. The bill, however, failed of passage.

elementary texts, is not desirable for all parts of the same city, and progressive city school systems — where not bound hand and foot by restrictive state legislation — are giving their teachers large liberty in the selection of both basal and supplementary books. Where ability divisions are used in pupil classification, texts of a different character are needed for each group. In state adoptions all this accumulated experience is disregarded, and an attempt is made to strike as near a general average as is possible, with the result that the books adopted are usually too difficult for the rural portions of a State, and not up to what the better city school systems desire to do. Each school then has to supplement the adopted texts to secure teaching results, with the result that costs are increased instead of being reduced.

The most serious educational objection to state-wide uniformity is that it is a serious violation of the professional aspect of school work. A textbook is an instrument to help carry out the ideas underlying a course of study, and a well-made course of study represents a constructive effort, on the part of some one who has been thinking, to put into teachable form an organized philosophy of the educative process, adapted to the needs of the particular school system under his supervision. The important elements that condition the successful use of any course of study are the textbooks and teaching material available, and the character of the teaching force that must carry the educational ideas represented by the course of study into execution. If this principle is sound, and the writer holds that it is, then the unit for the adoption of both textbooks and courses of study should always be the unit of supervision ¹ — that is, either

¹ A State, in its Constitution, might well provide that the making of courses of study and the adoption of textbooks should always rest with the unit of supervision. See the Constitution of the State of Osceola, Art. IX, Sec. 13, for an example of such legislation.

the city or the county unit, with the town as the unit in New England.¹

Free textbooks as a solution. Politicians and legislators and newspapers have emphasized the textbook question out of all proportion to its importance. One would think, from the way legislators and newspapers play up the question of textbook expense, that it is one of the chief items in the cost of school maintenance. As a matter of fact it forms but a very small part, and the saving that can be effected through uniformity is small indeed. Why, then, does the cost for textbooks bulk so large in the public estimation, and offer such an opportunity to politicians to fool the public by apparently effecting for them such "tremendous savings"? One answer is that for many parents the cost for textbooks is the only item of school costs they ever have to meet. In consequence the cost, coming at the same time as new clothes and shirts and shoes, seems much larger than it really is.

State textbook uniformity and state price-fixing have been ineffectual attempts to relieve cost pressure; the complete way lies through the provision of free textbooks and supplies. Where this has been done one hears little as to the cost problem, and at the same time the children get better books at no increased cost. Though there are arguments against free textbooks, a balancing of the arguments, pro and con, seems to leave the weight of evidence in favor of the free textbook plan, and the steady headway which it has made since it first began as a state-wide undertaking (permissive, 1873; first required, 1884), and especially in the States having large city school systems, would indicate that

¹ With exceptions for such a small State as Delaware, which has but three counties, and is under the immediate control of the state educational authorities, and for such a sparsely settled State as Nevada, where supervisory districts are used.

in practice the advantages, both educational and financial, have been on the side of free textbooks. Under it the burden of cost is both shifted and greatly reduced.

As soon as free textbooks are supplied, however, almost the whole reason for any type of uniformity in them disappears. Of the nineteen States making the furnishing of free textbooks mandatory, fourteen require them to be selected and paid for locally, and of the twenty-two States permitting districts to provide free textbooks, but without compelling them to do so, only ten have state-wide uniformity, and all these are in the West and South. In other words, state uniformity is a rural and an agricultural affair, and is seldom found where city populations dominate.¹ State-wide uniformity in school textbooks clearly tends to disappear, too, with the provision of free textbooks, as it should. Free textbooks also take care of the interstate migration of pupils, which state-wide uniformity does not do.

The idea of compulsory attendance. A natural corollary of the compulsory taxation of every man's property to help maintain a general state system of public instruction is the compulsion that every child shall attend the school and partake of the instruction thus provided. Yet the struggle to secure compulsory-attendance laws in our States has been a long, and often a bitter one; the gains have been made slowly, and only step by step; and the battle is by no means ended. Beginning with the Massachusetts law of 1852, it required until 1900 to secure compulsory-attendance laws in thirty-one States,² and it was only in 1918 that every State

¹ In a number of States which have provided for state uniformity, independence of the state law has had to be granted to the larger cities of the State. Such exceptions indicate that the law could never have been passed through the legislature had the cities not been freed from the uniformity requirement.

² For a list of the States, with dates, see page 10 of Bulletin 2, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1914, or pages 514-15 of *Biennial Survey of Education*, 1916-18, vol. 1.

became committed to the policy of requiring children between certain ages to attend school for some part of their lives, and for a part or all of the school term. The problem now is the revising and strengthening of the existing laws.

When the enforcement of compulsory attendance laws begins, certain needs at once appear. The first need is for an accurate state-wide school census, which will tell exactly what children should be in attendance at the school. A second is an attendance officer, and in cities an attendance bureau, which will see that the law is enforced. An attendance officer for a county-unit school system, or for a county and city combined, also is called for. In addition, some special schools to care for wayward and offending children, such as disciplinary classes, parental schools, and industrial schools are called for. The school nurse and the school visiting teacher are very useful adjuncts to enforcement. Closely connected with compulsory attendance is the problem of child labor, and the issuance of work permits for children of the compulsory ages.

The more one considers the problem of compulsory school attendance the closer is seen to be its relation to home conditions, pre-school care, child labor, factory and tenement laws, and the question of health. The immediate problem is school attendance, but society must also face the many problems lying back of this one. The problem is too large for local authority alone to cope with, and some local authorities always refuse to act until compelled to do so. Uniform action is desired, and the problem thus becomes one for general state control.

The experience of the cities needed. We have now, in the ten chapters which constitute Part I of this volume, sketched the larger aspects of state organization and con-

trol of public education. Before proceeding to any further examination of state and local educational organization we need to study the experience of the cities in the carrying out of their part of the general state program, because it has been the cities of this Nation which have done the most to work out and to put into effective execution the best ideas as to school organization and administration. It has been in the cities, too, that almost all of the more important educational advances have been made. For more than three quarters of a century the cities have been pioneers in most new educational undertakings; in them the battles surrounding proper organization and control have been most fiercely fought out; and in them the most important new undertakings have had their origin and have been carried through to definite establishment. We shall accordingly turn next to a somewhat detailed study of the administrative experience of our cities, and then, after summarizing this experience, we shall return, in Part III, to the problem of the best forms for use in state and local educational organization. Our first study will be the history of the rise of city school organization, after which we shall pass to a study of the different means provided for city school control.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Show how a general requirement that county superintendents of schools shall approve all school-building plans has both good and bad features.
2. If a school-building code is worked out and adopted for a State, is there any reason why its provisions should not apply to private and parochial schools, as well as to public schools?
3. What is meant by the requirement that a school building shall be structurally sound, and sanitary?
4. Would a State be justified in providing by law for sanitary surveys of school plants, when the local educational authorities had not requested such a survey? Why?

5. Show how the new interest in physical education was a natural result of the World War, and why, at first, the tendency was to emphasize drill and training, rather than health development.
6. Should a state health-and-development program be made equally applicable to private and parochial schools? Why?
7. Would there be economic as well as educational advantages if the school health and development work were extended to teachers and janitors, as well as to children?
8. Show how state price-fixing covers all needs as to state control of textbooks for the schools.
9. Show how uniform state adoption of high-school texts would be far more damaging to instruction than would be the case with elementary-school texts.
10. Show how the changes to the factory system and the growth of manufacturing cities have made compulsory education more of a necessity than ever before.
11. Would one be warranted in saying that the character of the compulsory school-attendance law, in any State, is an index to the popular interest in child protection? Why?
12. Indicate the educational and financial consequences of accepting the idea that all children are entitled to as good an education as their powers permit and their needs require.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. The nature of the school-building standards required in your State.
2. The work of your State in child welfare and child hygiene work.
3. The work of the Child Hygiene section of the United States Public Health Service.
4. What legislation is there in your State as to school textbooks?
5. Evaluate the compulsory attendance law in your State.

PROBLEMS

1. Examine two or three recent city school-survey reports, read the chapter on school buildings and grounds, and formulate your conclusions as to the adaptation of the school plants to the needs of a modern educational program.

2. Examine the *School Law* for your State, or some selected State, and list what is provided and required in the matter of a school health and development program.
3. Draw up the arguments, *pro* and *con*, on the matter of supervisory-unit adoptions of textbooks, over state uniformity.
4. Design a census-data record-form, such as might be used generally throughout a State, and include on it all needed data.

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PART II

THE CITY SCHOOL DISTRICT, ITS PROBLEMS, AND HOW IT HAS SOLVED THEM

DIVISION I

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

CHAPTER XI

EVOLUTION OF CITY SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The original town control. The taking-over of education from the Church as a function of the State, and the evolution of an administrative organization and machinery for its maintenance and control, was a long and, for a time, a very slow process. It began, in America, when the school in Colonial New England was founded as a creation of the civil instead of the religious town, but it was not until the nineteenth century that a full civil directing body to manage the school was finally evolved, and the process of evolving professional administration and supervision for the schools of our towns and cities was begun. The process is best illustrated in the case of Massachusetts, and forms an interesting introduction to the study of city school administrative organization and control.

In the first general law of the Colony¹ definitely requiring the establishment of schools, the Massachusetts General Court placed the responsibility for their establishment and maintenance with the towns, as wholes. At first, when the school was a small and a simple affair, and when neither the educational nor business control of the school presented any problems of consequence, the people, in town meetings,

¹ Enacted by the Massachusetts General Court of 1647. For the full text of the decree see Cubberley, E. P.: *Readings in the History of Education*, p. 299.

attended to the matter of education just as they attended to matters relating to roads, defenses, or the civil government, and just as, in religious meeting, these same people attended to matters relating to the affairs of the religious parish. The practice of the different towns varied somewhat, though in general the people, assembled together in town meeting, first voted to establish and afterward to support the school, and then voted to select a schoolmaster for it.¹

In these early meetings of the townspeople we find the first faint beginnings of the process of differentiating between the lay and the professional functions in school control.

In that early vote of school support [says Suzzallo²] are implied those powers and duties of school administration which have always remained, for the large part, in the hands of laymen officials in school affairs. In the early vote of electing the teacher are implied those powers and duties of school supervision which have passed, or are, by slow degrees, passing into the hands of a professional class of educational workers.

Subtracting powers from the towns. The Law of 1647 had required the different towns to establish and maintain

¹ A few examples will illustrate this:

Boston, in town meeting in 1635, established its first school by the adoption of the following order:

"Likewise, it was then generally agreed upon, that our brother Philemon Pormont shall be entreated to become schole-master for the teaching and nourtering of children with us."

A year later Charlestown voted to arrange with William Witherell "to keep a school for a twelvemonth," and fixed his salary at £40 a year.

Cambridge, in 1638, established its first school by voting certain lands for "the vse of mr Nath Eaton as long as he shall be Employed" in the work of teaching the school.

Newbury, the year following, granted to Anthony Somerby "foure akers of upland" and "sixe akers of salt marsh" as an "encouragement to keepe schoole for one year."

² Henry Suzzallo: *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*, p. 4.

schools, and had imposed a fine of five pounds for failure to do so. Every detail relating to the carrying of this law into effect, however, was left to the people of the towns. Seven years later the first step in the direction of any control of the towns was made in a general law of the Colony which commended to the selectmen¹ of the different towns that they exercise some supervision over the character of the teachers employed by the towns.² Nearly forty years later (1693), by a second law, the selectmen and the towns were jointly charged to see that the schools were maintained, and the selectmen were given power to levy taxes for schools, provided a majority of the people of the towns had previously voted to direct them to do so.

Excepting these two very limited laws, no action looking toward the removal from the town of any of its powers relating to schools was taken during the seventeenth century. The law of 1701-02, which required the master for the grammar school to be examined and certificated by a majority of the ministers of the town and the two adjoining towns, was the first real subtraction of power from the people of the town as a whole. The law of 1711-12, which applied the same principle to teachers for the elementary schools of the town, and placed the power to examine and certificate such persons definitely with the selectmen of the town, was the second subtraction of power.

Both of these subtractions, made by direction of the State, were subtractions of educational functions, and were made in the interests of a higher degree of efficiency in

¹ Selected men representing the town in certain forms of its business; the prototype of the modern city council as a local governing body.

² The law commended to "the selectmen in the seuerall townes, not to admitt or suffer any such to be contynued in the office or the place of teaching, educating or instructing of youth or child, in the colledge or schooles; that haue manifested ym selves vnsound in the fayth, or scandelous in theire liues, & not giueing due satisfaction according to the rules of Christ."

the schools. In the first case, the power to examine and certificate was given to a distinctly educational body; in the second, to the representative body for the government of the town. The people still voted funds, cared for the school property, selected textbooks, and directed the instruction.

Rise of the school committee. As the school business of the towns increased, there was a natural tendency among the towns toward the appointment of special committees for various educational purposes. Sometimes these committees were purely special and temporary,¹ and sometimes they were appointed for definite purposes and for definite periods of time.² These committees, however, were appointed by the towns for mere convenience of administration, and without either the authorization or direction of the general law, and represented a stage in development similar to that of the appointment of a committee on parks, or police, or sanitation by a town council of to-day.

In 1798, for the first time, a new state law, dealing with the certification of teachers, recognized such special committees by authorizing the acceptance, for elementary-school teachers, of a certificate from such committees in lieu of a certificate from the selectmen, and by implication also sanctioned the employment of teachers for the schools by such special committees.³ This law also gave the selectmen

¹ For example: Duxbury, in 1747, appointed a committee of one as "their Agent to procure a Schoolmaster"; Dudley, in 1760, appointed a committee of three to sell the schoolhouse; and in 1762 Braintree appointed a committee of three "to examine into the state of the School."

² For example: Boston, in 1721, appointed the first committee on visitation for the schools, and continued to appoint such annually thereafter for nearly a century; Springfield, in 1735, appointed a committee of three "to take the Inspection and Regulation of the School" on the west side of the river; and Fitchburg, in 1776, gave to a school committee supervisory power over the teachers employed by the town.

³ Referring to the certification of grammar-school and other masters, the law includes the following clause: "such Selectmen or Committee, who may be authorized to hire such schoolmaster."

some power in the grading of the schools, and also made the visitation and inspection of schools a uniform requirement upon the ministers and selectmen or committees of the several towns.

This last requirement marks the beginnings of authorized supervision in Massachusetts, and from this time on special school committees began to be appointed in the different towns.¹ Often, however, these new school committees also included the selectmen.²

In 1826 the State took the final step in the evolution of a distinct school board by ordering each town in the State to elect a separate school committee³ to have "the general charge and superintendence of all the public schools" of the town.⁴ This law marks the final transfer of the educational functions from the selectmen to a new body, created for the purpose of administering public education in the towns. This new body now elected the teachers, certificated them, supervised the instruction, selected the textbooks, had control of the school-buildings, and made rules and regulations for the control of the schools. The voting of school support was now the only power of importance remaining in the hands of the people.

¹ Many of the towns took advantage of this law and appointed school committees, or boards. The School Committee Records of Newburyport date from 1790, those of Boston from 1792, and those of Hingham from 1794.

² In Boston, for example, the school committee consisted of the entire board of selectmen and twelve additional committeemen, elected by the people of the town in the annual town meeting.

³ This is still a common New England designation of what elsewhere is generally called "board of education."

⁴ An exception to this was Boston, where, on the incorporation of the city in 1822, the control of the schools was given to the eight aldermen of the new city. This continued until 1835, when a separate school committee, composed of two citizens to be elected annually from each of the twelve wards of the city, together with the mayor and the president of the common council, *ex officio*, was created.

Two centuries of evolution. We see here the result of two centuries of evolution in the organization and administration of public education. When the civil school first arose, and for some time afterward during its period of infancy as a public institution, the people of the towns, in town meeting, arranged all details relating to its control. As the schools grew and increased in size and importance, the first of the functions represented by the two early votes, namely, that of voting support, remained with the towns; but the second function, namely that of choosing the teacher, became complicated, differentiated itself into a number of more or less professional acts, and was gradually delegated by the people to those who could represent them better than they could act for themselves.

The first professional act to be differentiated was the certification of the teachers employed; the next was the visitation and inspection of their work; and, finally, the right to employ the teacher also passed from the hands of the people into the hands of others who represented them. At first, these representatives were the learned men of the towns — the ministers, or the men selected by the people for the general town government; finally, a special representative body (school committee) was evolved, selected because of supposed ability to direct the system of public education maintained, and to this body were transferred the educational functions formerly resting with the towns. The final compulsory establishment of school committees (1826) marks the definite recognition by the State that the people of the towns were no longer able *en masse* to handle intelligently those educational matters relating to the teaching function of the school. Such matters were now to be decided for them by their representatives (or by the State); the voting of school support alone still remained with the people.

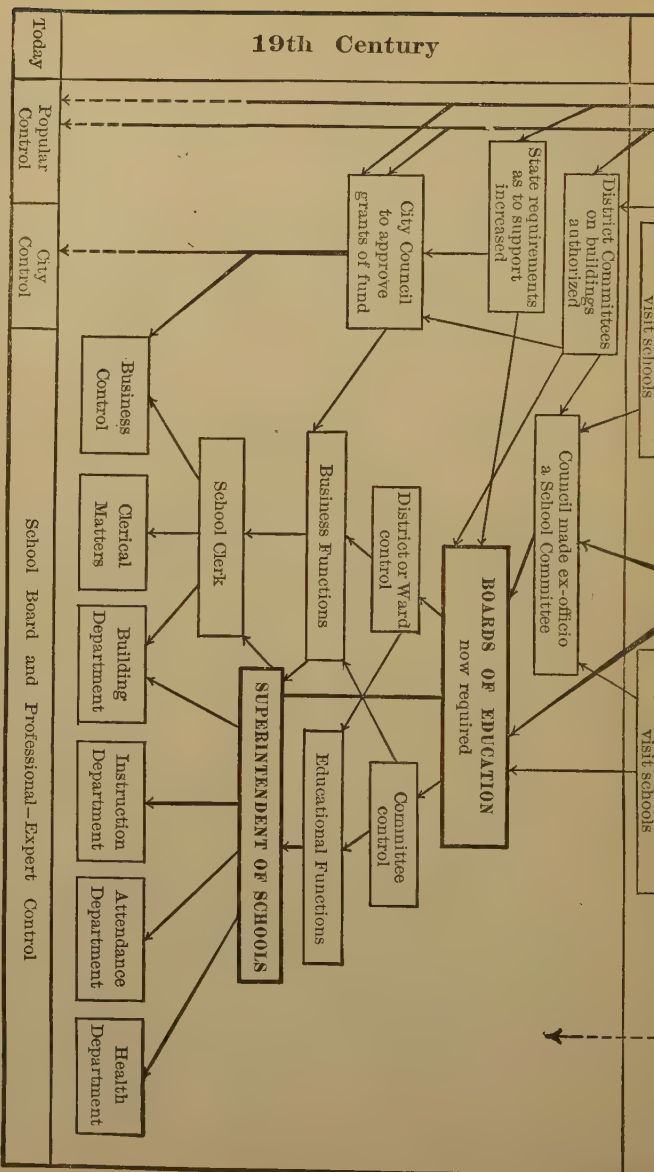
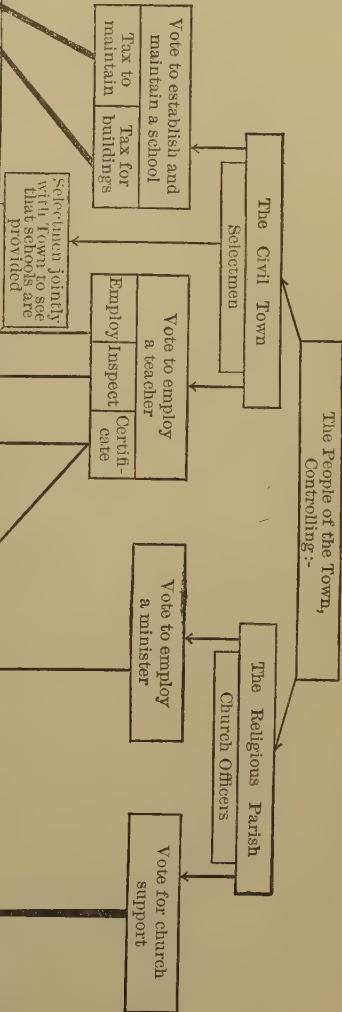
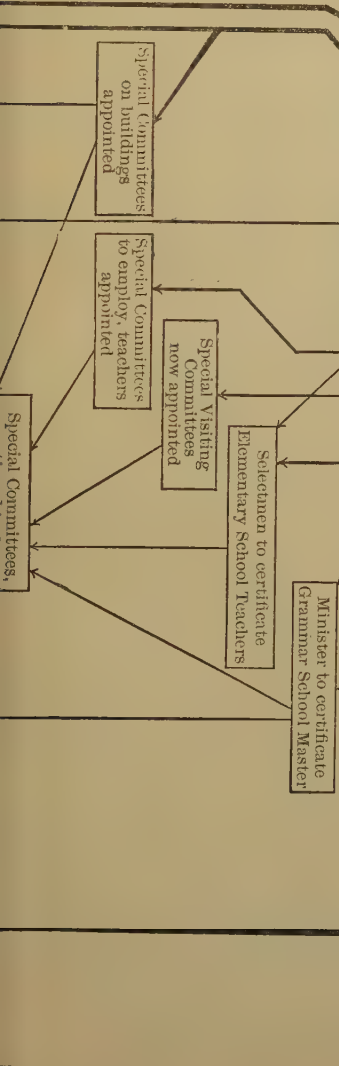


Fig. 14. CHART SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL AND PROFESSIONAL CONTROL IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

17th Century



18th Century



Massachusetts a type. Massachusetts represents a type of the best of our colonial development, and brings the evolution of city school control up to the close of the first quarter of the nineteenth century. By this time the school board had clearly evolved, and its functions had become fairly well established. This is shown in the chart (Figure 14) inserted here. From this time on the evolution consists of only a further differentiation of functions and a further delegation of powers to executive officers.

It was in Massachusetts, too, that the breaking-up of the towns into school districts first reached its extreme development, and it was from Massachusetts that the district-school movement in time spread over almost all of the United States. Beginning early in the eighteenth century, the process reached its culmination in the Law of 1827, enacted in part as a reaction against the Law of 1826, whereby the school districts which had for long been evolving were now created bodies corporate and politic, and the trustee for each ("prudential committeeman," as he was called) was given power to appoint the teacher for his district. This law marks the high-water mark of the district system in Massachusetts; after 1837 it was on the defensive, and was finally abolished in 1882. The influence of this development on the new States to the westward, however, was large.

Types of development elsewhere. It is at about the point reached by Massachusetts by 1826 that the development in many of our other earlier States begins, and one or the other of the plans worked out in Massachusetts was followed by them. Some cities began with the district system, and later united the various districts into one city school system;¹ others began, from the first, with a board

¹ Pennsylvania cities form excellent examples of this. Buffalo, Detroit, and Chicago are other good examples of early district organization.

of education (school committee) for the city as a whole;¹ a few followed, for a time, the plan employed in Boston from 1822 to 1835, and placed the schools under the direct control of the city council;² and a few others empowered the city council to appoint a board to manage the schools and to report to them.³ The first plan has now everywhere been abandoned, the cities of Pennsylvania being the last to give it up, and the second is now the almost universal practice. In some of our older Eastern cities what later evolved into public education was begun by school societies,⁴ and was only gradually assumed by the public. When the schools were finally taken over, however, they were placed under city boards of education which were granted all of the powers which the school committees of Massachusetts had come into possession of as a result of two centuries of slow evolution.

The separate school board. Early in the second quarter of the nineteenth century the idea of a separate board in cities, for the management of the public school system maintained, may be said to have become an accepted principle in our local government, and practically all powers of school control, aside from the voting of funds, now rested with such boards. All of the many powers evolving out of the vote for school control represented by the early town vote to choose a teacher had now passed from the people to such a

¹ Columbus, Cincinnati, and St. Louis illustrate this type.

² Buffalo, from 1839 to 1914, did the same.

³ Cleveland's first charter (1836) provided for the appointment annually, by the city council, of a board of managers of common schools, and gave the council power to determine the funds needed. The school board was thus little more than a subcommittee of the city council. This condition continued until 1859, when special legislation was secured from the State which provided for the election of a city board of education, by the people and along ward lines.

⁴ New York City, the city of Washington, and many of the Connecticut cities form good examples of this type of early development.

board, as had also some of the functions evolving out of the other vote to establish and maintain a school. The State, by general or special law, or by means of city charters, now laid down certain general rules which must be followed, and made certain demands which must be met. Within such limits as these laws imposed, the board, as a unit, exercised all of the general and specific duties of school control. The school boards also legislated for the schools and then executed, through their own officers — president, secretary, or clerk — or through the masters or the head masters of the school, the legislation which they had formulated. As time went by, and public education for all became a recognized function of the State, the duties of administration and control devolving on such boards naturally increased very materially in amount, and some means for handling these growing duties in time became a necessity. One means evolved was the subdivision of control by wards or districts, and the other was through the creation of an increasing number of standing committees within the board itself.

Development of the ward or district system. In cities where the ward or district unit of organization became prominent, a subdivision of the increasing duties was made on the basis of ward or district lines. The central board examined teachers, selected textbooks, visited the schools, and exercised general supervision over them, while the trustees for each ward or district employed the teachers for that ward or district, built and cared for the schoolhouses, purchased school supplies, employed and supervised the janitors, and levied taxes for all purposes except for the pay of the teacher,¹ and sometimes even for this item as well.

¹ This was essentially the plan in operation in Chicago from the organization of the city in 1835 to the consolidation of the schools into one city system, by the abolition of the districts, in 1857. Philadelphia and Pittsburgh had essentially this plan until 1905.

Under this plan of ward or district organization, sectional and local interests naturally attained great importance, great inequalities in the schools and in the burdens for their support existed, and the school systems resulting can hardly be said to have been much more, at first, at least, than a loosely federated collection of local and contiguous schools. The system also resulted, by the addition of territory and the natural growth of the cities, in the development of large and unwieldy boards of education,¹ more actuated by special interests than by the general good of the city as a whole, and under which progress of any kind became increasingly difficult.

Development of the committee system. In other cities, not afflicted with the ward or district system, a committee system was developed as a means of dividing among the members the administrative burdens arising from a rapidly expanding and developing school system. From a few committees at first the number was gradually increased, and to each was assigned, subject to the direction and approval of the whole board, the performance of certain specified duties, such as the employment or certification of teachers, the building or repair of schools, the purchase of school supplies,

¹ A few examples will illustrate this:

Boston, in 1818, had a school committee (board) of 24. In that year primary schools were established, and a primary school board of three citizens was provided for each school. By 1849 there were 214 board members serving the city. After reduction, in 1854, to 72 members, six for each of the twelve wards of the city, the number was again increased, by the annexation of new wards, to 116 by 1875, when the number was reduced by law to 24. The city now has a school board of five members.

Cincinnati's board of education increased, by a similar process, from 10 in 1837 to 50 in 1873.

Philadelphia represents the most extreme case, the board there being composed of six members from each ward. By the annexation of new territory, it came to consist of 403 members by 1880, 455 by 1889, 533 by 1900, and 559 by 1905. In that year the number was reduced by state law to 21, and in 1911 to 15.

the approval of bills, the employment and supervision of the janitors, the selection of textbooks, or the formulation of the courses of study. A large and increasing board consequently became an advantage, as it provided more members to transact the constantly increasing business. A dozen to a score of standing committees in time came to be not uncommon, while Cincinnati at one period of its educational history came to have seventy-four different committees, and Chicago seventy-nine.

This committee form of school-board organization represents the first stage in the important process of separating the legislative and the executive functions in the control of a city school system, and was attained early in the nineteenth century.

Evolution of school board officers. The next step in the process of separating the two functions was the evolution of the professional school superintendent on the one hand, and the school board clerk or business manager on the other. These new offices, when they were created, were filled by appointment or election from without the board of education, and gradually these new officials were entrusted with numerous executive functions and directed to act in the name of the board. With the development and expansion of the school system of the cities, this step followed as naturally as did the evolution of the school committee or the board out of the selectmen or the town council at an earlier date. Our city school systems may be said to have reached this second stage in their development of administrative control by about 1875.

The city superintendent of schools, when appointed, inherited the functions of the old school visiting committees, and, in time, also those of the standing educational committees of the board, while the school clerk or business manager took over many of the clerical and business activities

of the school board and the supervision of the school plant. In the case of many of the early appointments, these two executive offices were created independently of one another, and the holders were assigned independent powers and duties. In case of a conflict of functions or authority between the two, it was perfectly natural that the school board should act as arbiter between them. This dual control, still characteristic of a number of larger cities, arose as the result of a perfectly natural process of evolution. Not all cities, however, evolved this dual or multiple form of control. In most cities a superintendent of schools was appointed, instead, to be the adviser of the school board and the chief executive officer of the school system, and other officers were appointed to assist him in the management of the schools.

The unmistakable tendency, once a superintendent of schools was evolved, has been to delegate to him those professional functions which relate to teachers and instruction, as well as many of the matters relating to buildings and equipment, the board reserving to itself advisory control, the power to enact general legislation, and the control of the finances of the schools. Just as the towns originally passed these functions over to special representative boards, with a view to securing more intelligent action, so such boards have in turn passed these functions over to an expert officer and his staff, and with the same purpose in mind. As the educational nature of all functions of school control has come to be more and more clearly perceived, with time, the unmistakable tendency, too, has been to make the superintendent of schools the chief executive officer of the school board and to place all other executive officers under his general supervision and control.

The dates of the appointment of the first city superintendents of schools have been given,¹ and the statement was

¹ See page 75, footnote 1.

made there that their duties at first must have been quite simple and limited. Some of the first superintendents of city school systems were not even school men,¹ and their duties were more those of a school-board clerk or business manager of to-day than those of a modern professional school superintendent. Gradually, but slowly, with the growth of the cities, the widening sphere of public education, the increase in the complexity of the school system maintained, the increase in the number of superintendents employed, and the growth of a professional spirit among them,² boards of education began to decrease the number, importance, and activity of the standing and special committees, and to direct the new superintendent of schools either to investigate conditions and needs and to report to them with recommendations for action, or to act in their name.

Further differentiation of executive functions. With the still more rapid growth of cities since about 1880, and the still more rapid expansion of our city school systems since about 1900, even further specialization of functions and delegation of authority has become a necessity, if intelligent educational service is to be rendered to the community supporting the schools. The problems relating to organization, instruction, and school management have become far

¹ Cleveland first designated the secretary of the school board as "acting manager of schools," and he continued in this capacity for twelve years before a real superintendent of schools was elected. In Jersey City the office was for some time an unsalaried one, and was held by merchants and other business men, who performed merely nominal duties. Cincinnati at first elected a superintendent from among the citizenship, and by popular vote, just as members of the school board were secured.

² The National Association of School Superintendents was organized in 1865, and held its first meeting in Washington in February, 1866. This organization later became the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, and has continued to the present time. Most of the important discussions of supervisory problems since have taken place before this body.

too technical to be handled successfully by the ordinary layman, while the business and clerical work has so increased in quantity as to demand the continuous services of an officer specially capable in such lines. Even more, the problems relating to instruction and school organization have in themselves become so differentiated as to require, in our larger cities, a division of executive functions among a number of specially trained educational officers.

Large boards, ward control, and the committee system of school administration have all alike proved so inadequate and so unsatisfactory, under modern conditions of school organization and administration, that there has been a marked tendency, within the past quarter of a century, toward a very material reduction in the size of city school boards and toward the entire elimination of their standing committees. There has also been a marked tendency toward the delegation to expert officers, not members of the board, of most of the powers and executive functions formerly possessed and exercised by the city school boards, and the establishment of the superintendent of schools as the chief executive officer of the school system. Sometimes this has come about by tacit understanding, and sometimes by the requirements of general school law, but more commonly it has come about by the adoption of rules and regulations by the school board which have delegated the powers of control to those who can use them best.

The result has been the evolution of what might be called a comprehensive type of school superintendent in our smaller cities, and of a number of executive officers for our larger city school systems. In some of our cities and states these officers have been clothed by law with certain definite powers and duties with which boards of education cannot interfere, or at most over which they can exercise only a moderate supervisory authority. On the business side has

been evolved the school clerk, or secretary, who attends to all purely clerical functions, and the business manager, who acts in the name of the board in most financial matters. On the educational side, in addition to the superintendent of instruction, have come supervisors of special forms of instruction, a supervisor of health, and a supervisor of school attendance. In between the two, and partaking of the functions of both the business and the educational sides, has come a superintendent of school properties. Other executive officials, of more or less importance in the educational administration, but not necessary to enumerate here, also have been evolved to meet special needs in different city school systems. (See chart, Figure 14.)

Present conceptions as to school control. The marked trend of the past quarter of a century in city school administration has been to increase the importance of the board of education as a legislative body, to decrease its importance as an executive body, and to centralize authority and responsibility in the hands of one or more well-trained and capable executive officers, with the city superintendent of schools as the directing and coördinating head of the executive organization. These executive officers are responsible to the board, and the board in turn to the people.

The function of a city board of education has become, more and more, to act as a board for school control — representing the people on the one hand and the State on the other. Its powers in the matter of finance and building have been materially enlarged; its powers to legislate and direct, within the limits set by general law, have likewise been expanded; and to it, in conjunction with the superintendent of schools, has been given the task of determining the local educational policy relating to public education. In the execution of the legislation or of the policy determined upon, however, it has come to be conceived, more and

more clearly, to be in the interests of efficient administration for the board to leave all executive functions to carefully chosen executive officers, who act as its representatives. In this regard the evolution of city school control has kept in touch with the best principles of corporation management and control.

It is at this point in the evolution of city school organization and administration that we take up the problem for more detailed consideration.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Show why the title "school committee" is a perfectly natural term for use in New England.
2. When New England towns and cities have made a fundamental reorganization of their school system, within recent years, they usually have changed the title of the governing body to "board of education." Show why this change has been a proper one to make.
3. Show why, in view of the discussion of this chapter, "board for school control" would have been a still better term to have used. Why is the term "board of education" a misnomer to-day?
4. Show why the certification of the teacher was the first professional act to be differentiated and delegated, and the visitation of schools the second, by the town selectmen.
5. Show how the new professional superintendent of schools naturally inherited the functions of the committees.
6. Was unified or dual (multiple) control the more natural early form of development? Why?
7. Show how all functions of school control, as carried on by the different executive departments of a school system, are fundamentally educational in nature.

PROBLEMS

1. Place dates on the margin of the chart (Figure 14), corresponding to each change in control there shown. When the date is not definitely fixed, put a *c.* before the date, as *c.* 1775.

2. Make a development chart that will show the evolution of school board officers and functions, as described in the latter part of this chapter.
3. A school board had in its employ a superintendent of schools who was a good supervisor of teachers but weak in administration, and a business manager who was a forceful executive. To secure greater efficiency the school board instituted dual control. The business manager, through his control of the budget, has now run away with the school system, and instruction has been reduced to a position clearly subordinate to buildings, grounds, repairs, supplies, etc. Outline the remedy.

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CHAPTER XII

ORGANIZATION OF BOARDS FOR SCHOOL CONTROL

Special governing boards. Special school boards for the control of the educational systems of our cities are to-day an almost universal feature of city-district school organization. While the term "board of education" is the most common designation for such a body, the term "school committee" (New England), "school board" (Minnesota), "board of school directors" (Pennsylvania; Oregon), "board of school trustees" (Indiana; Montana), "board of school commissioners" (Baltimore; Indianapolis), and "board of school inspectors" (Peoria) also are used.¹ Only a very few cities, and these almost entirely cities having a commission form of government, do not have a board of education for the control of their schools.

There is no generally established method for the creation of school boards for cities, although the past quarter of a century has witnessed marked progress in the direction of what may now be considered proper standards. The number of school boards which are elected by the people has in-

¹ Practically all of these titles, and very naturally, are expressive of the earlier conception as to the nature of the functions to be exercised by governing boards for schools in cities. In the light of our best present-day conceptions as to the nature of the work of such governing bodies, the term "board for school control" would be a better one for future use, for the reason that it expresses more accurately the real function of a school board in any city where modern conceptions as to its work prevail. The term "board of education" has gradually become a misnomer, and its use tends to continue, in the minds of both board members and the people, a conception that it is the function of such bodies to continue to attempt to exercise technical and professional functions which ordinary laymen are no longer competent to handle.

creased very materially, while the number of appointed school boards has correspondingly decreased. The number of school boards elected or appointed by wards, or elected by the city council, is to-day relatively small. Appointment by the mayor also tends to give way to election by the people, and charter determination ¹ to general state law.

Some school boards still are large, though more to-day are small. Some boards still retain the old committee system in full strength; some have only a few committees; while a number have abolished standing committees entirely. Some boards are both legislative and executive bodies, the superintendent of schools being much in the nature of a clerk to the board; some divide the executive functions to a greater or less degree with this official; while a few cities have clearly separated the executive from the legislative functions, and entrust all of the former to paid experts, the board acting entirely as a board of control for the school system of the city district.

Recent reorganizations. So rapid has been the growth of our cities, and so recent has been the more complex development of public education and the appointment of professional experts to advise and to direct, that practically all of our cities, up to a relatively few years ago, possessed an educational organization much better adapted to the time when they were villages, and when education was a relatively small and simple affair, than to needs and conditions now existing in a growing American city. Perhaps a large

¹ Special educational charters were quite common once, when some communities desired to progress and others did not, but few such are granted now, while many States prohibit such special legislation. Georgia forms an excellent illustration of such grants, almost every city of any size in the State having at some time been granted a special educational charter. Four counties have special county school systems, which include the cities, towns, and rural districts, and which are largely independent of the state school laws.

majority of our cities are still in this condition. Progress in education has outrun the development of the governing law.

Within the past two decades, however, a number of our cities, large and small, have effected voluntary or compulsory educational reorganizations, with a view to adapting better the administration of their school systems to the needs of the future in matters of educational organization and administration.¹ Such reorganizations have come, in large part, as the result of the gradual establishment of certain standards relating to the organization and work of city boards of education, and the relationship such bodies should bear to their executive officers and to the general city government.

In this chapter we shall indicate briefly the nature of such reorganizations, and state what these standards are with reference to the legal organization of the board for city school control; in the following chapter we shall state what

¹ The following, among our larger cities, illustrate this tendency:

St. Louis, in 1897, changed from a ward board of 21 to one of 12 elected from the city at large, and with the powers of the board and of its executive officers clearly defined.

San Francisco, in 1898, changed from a board of 12 elected along ward lines to one of 4 appointed by the mayor, and in 1921 to an appointed board of 7.

Baltimore, in 1898, changed from a board of 28 elected along ward lines and with the mayor a member *ex officio* to a board of 7 appointed by the mayor.

Rochester, in 1901, changed from a ward board of 16 to a board of 5 elected at large.

Boston, in 1905, changed from a ward board of 24 to one of 5 elected from the city at large.

Philadelphia, in 1905, changed from a series of 43 elected district boards, consisting of 559 members, to a board of 21 members appointed from the city at large by the judges of the court of common pleas. In 1913, the board was further reduced by general state law to 15 members.

Providence, R.I., in 1925, changed from a board of 33 to one of 7, elected from the city at large on a non-partisan ballot.

they are as they relate to the work and proper functions of the board.

Tendencies in recent reorganizations. As was pointed out in the previous chapter, the tendency has been, with the evolution of the professional superintendent and the delegation of administrative functions to experts, to reduce the size of the board, to curtail both the number and the work of the board committees, and to eliminate all *ex-officio* members from the board. By this means the board is reduced to a small and businesslike body, and transformed into a real board for school control.

Within recent years many of our city boards of education have been reduced in size, and the number of their standing committees decreased, with a view to securing a better educational organization for the administration of the schools. Sometimes these changes have come as a result of the people of the city asking for an amended charter or a special law.¹ Most of the earlier reorganizations came about in this way. More recently the tendency has been for the State, by means of a general state law, and without waiting for the cities to act voluntarily, to compel a reduction in size and a change in the basis of selection of board members for all cities of the State, doing so in the interests of a more efficient administration of the schools in the city school districts.² Some of the changes produced by these recent

¹ As, for example, Cleveland, which substituted a board of 7 elected at large, for a large ward board in 1892; Newark, which reduced its board from 32 to 9 in 1908; San Diego, California, which substituted a board of 5, elected at large, for a ward board of 18 in 1909; Newton, Massachusetts, which reduced its board from 15 to 8 in 1910; New Orleans, from 17 to 5 in 1912; and Cincinnati, from 29 to 7 in 1913.

² Under such general state laws the school board of Indianapolis was reduced from 11 to 5, and Louisville from 16 to 5. Kansas, in 1911, by general law reduced all school boards in cities of over 2000 inhabitants to 6, to be elected at large; and Ohio, in 1913, reduced all city boards of education to 5 or 7 members.

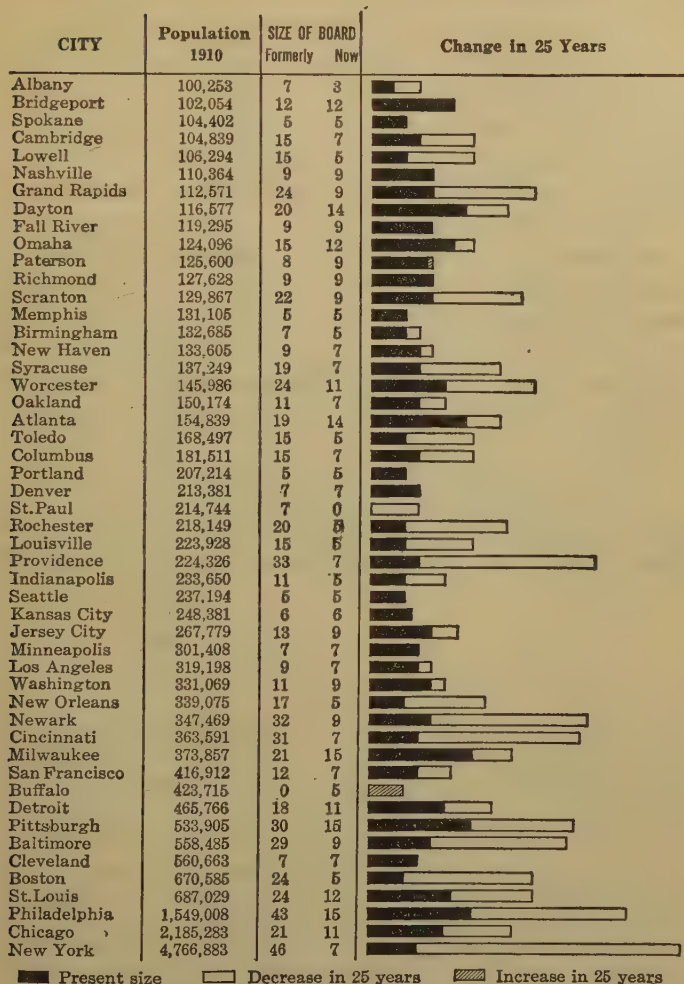


FIG. 15. TENDENCIES OF TWENTY-FIVE YEARS IN SCHOOL-BOARD REORGANIZATION, IN FIFTY CITIES

As shown by the fifty cities which had 100,000 or more inhabitants in 1910. It will be seen that there is no relation between the size of the city and the size of the school board, but that in all there has been a tendency to reduce the school board in size.

general laws have been large, and thoroughly fundamental in nature.¹ Some of these recent laws have either limited and specified the number of standing committees which may be created, or have abolished them altogether, and, most important of all, have clearly stated that certain executive functions must be delegated to specified executive officers to be appointed by the board.²

As a result of the discussion, legislation, and experience of the past quarter of a century in city school organization and administration, it may be said that the best type of board for educational control in our American cities, large or small, now seems to be a small board — five or seven members being the most desirable numbers — with no *ex-officio* members;³ elected from the city at large; chosen on a non-

¹ In Ohio, as a result of general laws of 1904, 1908, and 1913, school boards of 15 to 27 have been reduced to 5 or 7.

The most marked reduction has come as a result of the Pennsylvania state law of 1911, whereby all cities were classified, and the size of their boards determined, as follows:

CLASS	POPULATION OF CITY	SIZE OF BOARD
1	500,000 and over	15
2	30,000 to 499,999	9
3	5,000 to 29,999	7
4	Under 5000	5

This law also abolished the district system of representation, and substituted appointment by the judges in the two first-class cities, and election at large elsewhere. The result of this law was to reduce the board of education in Philadelphia from 24, and in Pittsburgh from 45, to 15 each; and in Harrisburg from 32, in Reading from 64, and in Williamsport from 52, to 9 each.

² The tendency in state legislation is to discontinue special acts governing city, town, and village school systems, and to extend the principle of classification so as to care for all actual local needs.

³ It used to be a somewhat common practice to include the mayor, *ex officio*, as a member of the board of education, but the plan has almost invariably given poor results, and has been abandoned generally. The temptation to the mayor, who is primarily a political personality, is always strong to play politics at the expense of the schools, and the elimination of this official is a necessary step in the elimination of politics from the administration of public education and the separation of school affairs from municipal government.

partisan ballot, and at a special school election; elected for relatively long terms, with only a small percentage elected or appointed at any one time; few or no standing committees; and with a clear differentiation stated in the law between the legislative functions of the board and the executive functions of the experts of the department. Figure 16 shows these tendencies for 174 medium-sized cities.

The reasons for the impositions of such standards in the organization of boards of school control for city school districts are about as follows:

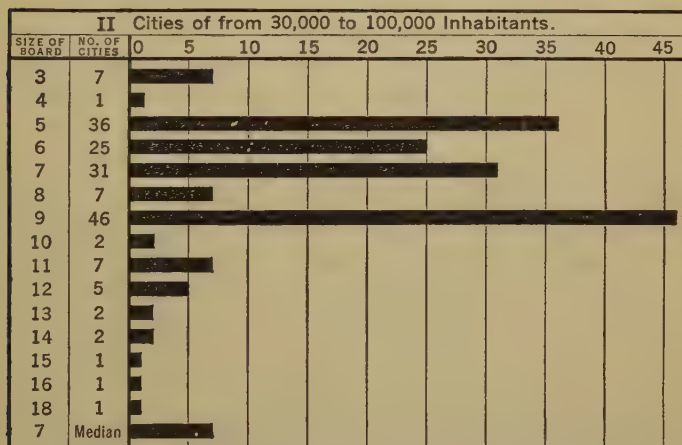


FIG. 16. FREQUENCY IN SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS IN ONE HUNDRED AND SEVENTY-FOUR MEDIUM-SIZED CITIES

(After Deffenbaugh.)

Size of school boards. The experience of the past half-century, in city school administration in this country, is clearly and unmistakably that a small board is in every way a more effective and a more efficient body than a large one. It should not be too small, as very small boards tend too much to become one-man affairs, and the gain that comes

from having a number of people consider and discuss a proposition is lost. On the other hand, a few men can always work together more economically and more efficiently than can a large body. The unquestioned experience of our American cities, having large school boards or city councils, has been that the real thinking, planning, and executing is usually done by from two or three to half a dozen men within the group. The inevitable result with a large board is cliques, factions, and wheels within wheels in the administration. A board of five or seven is now generally regarded as the most desirable size, with a board of three permissible in cities of 8000 or less.¹

The small board is far less talkative, and hence handles the public business much more expeditiously; it is less able to shift responsibility for its actions; it cannot so easily divide itself up into small committees, and works more efficiently and intelligently as a committee of the whole; and it cannot and will not apportion the patronage in the way that a large ward board can and will do. A large board is unwieldy and incoherent; it seldom transacts the public business quietly and quickly; it tends too frequently to become a public debating society, where small-minded or politically inclined men talk loud and long and "play to the galleries" and to the press; while personal and party politics, and sometimes lodge and church politics, not infrequently determine its actions. It is almost always divided into factions, between whom there is continual strife and rivalry, and important matters are usually caucused in advance and "put through" by the majority at that moment in control.

¹ Deffenbaugh's studies of size of school boards give the following results:

SIZE OF CITIES	LARGEST	SMALLEST	MODE	MEDIAN
Over 100,000.....	30	1	7	7
30,000-100,000.....	18	3	9	7
5,000-30,000.....	18	3	7	-6

A reduction in size to a body small enough to meet around a single table and discuss matters in a simple, direct, and business-like manner, under the guidance of a chairman who knows how to handle public business, and then take action as a whole, is very desirable.¹

Basis of selection; wards *vs.* at large. The appointment or election of school-board members from city wards or districts is a survival of the early district system of school control, and the evidence everywhere is against the continuance of this practice. No surer means for perpetuating the personal and political evils in school control can be devised than the continuance of the ward system of representation. In cities where part of the school board has been elected at large and part by wards, those elected at large have almost invariably proved to be the better members. In cities where the complete change from a ward board to a smaller one elected or appointed at large has been made, the change practically always has resulted in the production of a better board from among the body of the electorate, and a better handling of the business of public education. The larger the city the more important that the ward system be abandoned.

The tendency of people of the same class or degree of success in life to settle in the same part of the city is a matter of common knowledge. The successful and the unsuccessful; the ones who like strong and good government, and the ones who like weak and poor government; the temperate and the intemperate elements; and the business and the laboring classes — these commonly are found in different parts of a city. Wards come to be known as "the fighting third,"

¹ With such a board, long evening meetings are unnecessary. If the board confines itself to its proper work, an hour or two a week will transact all of the school business which the board should handle. There is no more need for speeches or oratory in the conduct of a school system than there would be in the conduct of a national bank.

"the red-light fourth," "the socialistic ninth," or "the high-brow fifth," and the characteristics of these wards¹ are frequently evident in the composition of the board of education. The young and ambitious politician not infrequently moves into an "open ward" in the hope of securing an election there, and, when elected, makes the school board a stepping-stone to the council and higher political preferment. Not infrequently the school janitor, appointed in the first place as a reward for political services, becomes the ward boss in turn and dictates the nomination of the school-board members. Cases have been known under this system where the janitor, dismissed for cause, has become a candidate in his ward and been elected to membership in the school board that dismissed him.

One of the important results of the change from ward representation to election from the city at large, in any city of average decency and intelligence, is that the inevitable representation from these "poor wards" is eliminated, and the board as a whole comes to partake of the best characteristics of the city as a whole. The members represent the city as a whole, instead of wards; they become interested in the school system as a unit, instead of parts of it; and the continual strife in boards caused by men who represent a

¹ The writer once knew a ward board composed of one physician, two business men, one good lawyer, two politician lawyers with few clients, one bookkeeper, one blacksmith, one saloonkeeper, one buyer of hides and tallow, one butcher, one druggist, one worker in a lumber yard, one retired army officer, one man of no occupation except general opposition to any form of organized government, and one woman. The result was a board divided into factions, members from the better wards having but little influence with those from the poorer wards. The constant danger was that the less intelligent and less progressive element would wear out the better element and come to rule the board. Important measures had to be cautioned in advance of proposing them to see that a majority was a probability. In appointing the committees, the chairman had to choose between having half the board do all of the important work, or of placing men on committees for which they were wholly unfitted.

constituency instead of a cause, and whose efforts are constantly directed toward securing funds, teachers, janitors, and favors for the school or schools "they represent," is largely eliminated.

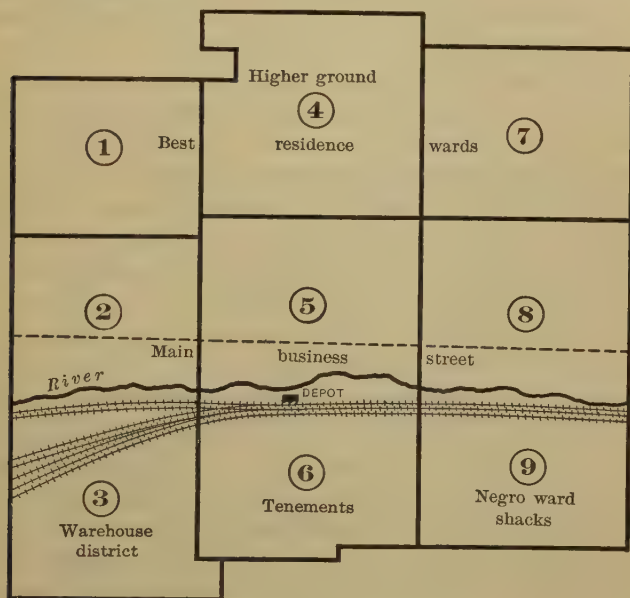


FIG. 17. A CITY OF NINE WARDS

The three wards south of the river contain the poorer classes of the city. These live in cheap homes south of the railway tracks. Wards 1, 4, and 7 lie on higher ground, and the better residences of the city are in these three wards and in the upper edges of wards 2, 5 and 8. The business district of the city parallels the river, and lies in wards 2, 5, and 8.

Wards 1, 4, and 7 always select good members for the Board of Education, while wards 3, 6, and 9 practically always select poor members. The fight then hinges around wards 2, 5, and 8, the better element of the city being compelled to watch these wards carefully, so as to elect good men from at least two of these three wards.

Under the ward system of representation, too, it is a matter of common knowledge that men are nominated and elected from wards who could not be nominated, much less elected, from the city at large. Better men are almost al-

ways attracted to the educational service when election from the city at large, and for relatively long terms, is substituted for ward representation. A man of affairs, really competent to handle the educational business of a city, often cannot be induced to accept membership on a large ward board because of the great waste of time and the small results attained. If the management of a school system is political, or personal, or petty, the best men tend to keep off the school board, which in turn accentuates the trouble and brings a constantly poorer quality of men to the service.

Appointment vs. election. A plan tried in some of our cities, but one less in favor now than some years ago, is that of having the mayor of the city appoint the board members instead of their being elected. This plan has been especially favored for large cities. In small cities there is no question but that election at large by popular vote is the more desirable method, and even for large cities experience seems to indicate that election from the city at large on a non-partisan ballot is the better plan.¹ In Philadelphia appointment by the court of common pleas has been tried, but to this method there is some objection, though the results under it have been good. The judges do not desire the responsibility, and it should not be put upon them. In a few of our commission-governed cities the city commission appoints the school board.

So far as the objection to appointment by the mayor rests on the plea that it "removes the schools farther from the people" is concerned, the objection is of little weight. Our city executives are elected by and represent the whole people, and usually are very close to the people, at least to that class of the people who concern themselves most with

¹ Election by the people and at large has certainly given better results in Boston, St. Louis, and Portland, Oregon, than has been the case under appointment by the mayor in New York, Chicago, or San Francisco.

city government, and they represent the average opinion of such very well. Too often this is one of the most serious objections to such a method of appointment. If the mayor is of a distinctively high type, and deeply interested in the public welfare, he may make better appointments than the popular-election method will produce. Too often, however, the temptation to play city politics at the expense of the schools is irresistible, and the effect on the schools is disastrous.

In favor of appointment, over election at large, is the belief that the mayor can be held responsible for bad appointments, and that he can select with greater care and without reference to where the appointee lives. Against such appointment is the close personal relationship likely to exist between the mayor and the appointees; the sense of obligation resulting in a return of favors; the mixing of city government and school government; the tendency of mayors to interfere with the administration of the schools; the likelihood of introducing city politics into appointments and the awarding of contracts; and, in case of a bad mayor, the ease with which the school system may be demoralized.¹

Commission and city-manager forms of government. A new departure in the administration of city school systems has recently been made in a few of our cities where the commission form of city government has been introduced. In a few of these the board of education for the city school district has been abolished, and the school system has been incorporated as a department of the commission-governed

¹ San Francisco, in 1921, began a trial of a combination method of appointment and city approval of the appointment made. Under this plan the mayor nominates the school-board members, sixty days before the city election, and the people then vote, at large, to approve or to disapprove his nominees. As a matter of fact the people can do little else than approve, as they have no choice in the matter, and the plan seems to give something that it does not give.

city. In such cases either one commissioner exercises a special supervision over the school department, or the city commissioners pass upon school matters as a body. In most cities the board of education has been retained,¹ the commissioners for the city merely succeeding the people or the mayor in the one function of appointing the board, and perhaps also in determining the amount of school funds to be placed under its control. Under either plan there is a tendency for the school district to be subordinated to the municipal government.

Under the city-manager form of city control the council continues as an appointive and legislative body, and a city manager — not necessarily a resident of the city — is employed to manage the city as a business enterprise. The city manager thus supersedes the mayor as the executive head of the city government, and, quite frequently, he in turn appoints all city boards and heads of departments, including the board of education, if there be one, and the city superintendent of schools if the school board has been abolished.

That there is a tendency toward the simplification of city government, and the placing of all city departments under one small board of control, is unmistakable. The inclusion of the schools as one of the departments of the commission-governed city seems at first thought, if one forgets the origin and nature of the city school district, a perfectly logical thing to do, but, notwithstanding a few apparently successful experiments here and there, it is nevertheless a somewhat questionable proceeding. Whatever the future may bring forth in the matter of improving municipal ad-

¹ Sharpleigh, in his study of 24 of the largest commission-governed cities, found elected school boards in 17, appointed boards in 6, and no school board in but one (St. Paul). He found that the school department had been made a coördinate part of the municipal government in but 5 of the 24 cities.

ministration, we as a people have not, as yet, attained to the conception of the purpose of public education and the standards in its administration which would make the turn-over of the schools to the control of the city government a wise thing to do.

If the commission or city-manager form of control extends only to the appointment of the school board, action by the commission or city manager taking the place of appointment by the mayor, and to the replacing of the city council in the levying of the school-board funds,¹ then the plan, instead of being objectionable, may be quite commendable. In these two matters of administration the commission form of government is likely to result in an improvement in educational administration, but in almost every other respect the school system is more likely to prosper if operated by a separate small board for school control, and under the provisions of the general educational law of the State.

Term of office, and elections. It used to be a common practice to elect the school committee or school board annually, and the survivals of this custom are still found in some of our cities. In a few cities the entire school board is elected annually or biennially, and in many cities half the members are elected at each annual or biennial election.² In these cases a new school board may assume control that knows little or nothing about the schools, or the policies for their development which a preceding board has worked out, often at the expense of much time and thought.

Short terms of office and rapidly changing membership

¹ This is essentially the plan as instituted at Houston, Texas. See the article by Horn, in *Educational Review*, April, 1909. While the schools are likely to fare better with a commission than with a city council, in the matter of funds, full fiscal independence is a still more desirable condition.

² If one half are, theoretically, new at each election, a clear majority, due to deaths or resignations, has to be elected each time.

do not produce conditions conducive to good school administration, and do not attract the best men to the service. In cities where all or even a majority of a school board change at one time, neither the school board nor the superintendent of schools can plan and execute any long-time educational policy; and both are forced to consider, altogether too much for the good of the schools, what it is expedient to do. Better men are attracted to the service by a longer term of office and a relatively stable membership. The new member can be initiated gradually into the work and ideals of the board, and an educational policy can be planned and carried out over a longer period of time. School election contests, based on a desire to change the character of the administration, are much less frequent, and a radical change in educational policy scarcely ever results from one election. If the superintendent of schools also is given a relatively long term, the conditions are very favorable for efficient and progressive educational administration.

From three to five years would seem to be the most desirable length of term for school-board membership. Where the board consists of three or five, one should be elected each year, and for a three- or a five-year term. In case of a board of seven, the election of one, two, two, and two each succeeding year would seem most desirable.

It will at once be objected that city or state elections usually come only biennially, and that an annual election of school-board members is therefore impossible. Such objections usually come from the man who is not interested in making it possible. The divorce of school-board elections from city or state political contests is in itself very desirable, and this has been done in a number of cities. School board members should be elected at a spring school election, conducted in a simple manner at the schoolhouses, and without reference to the Australian system of balloting. Nom-

ination should be by petition, with a required number of sponsors, and names of the candidates should be placed on the ballot without party or other designation. Such elections are conducted in many places in a simple, inexpensive, and thoroughly satisfactory manner.¹

Pay for services. A few communities pay their board members either a *per-diem* or a yearly fixed sum. Five or ten dollars a meeting, and the number of meetings limited to four or five a month, is occasionally found. A fixed sum, such as \$100 a year, is also occasionally found. Rochester, in its reorganization of 1901, provided for a yearly salary of \$1200 a year for each board member, and San Francisco, in the reorganization of 1898, provided for a board of four members, to be paid \$3000 each, and required to devote their entire time to the work of the school board.² In a bill before the New York Legislature of 1911 for the reorganization of the New York City school board, but which brought forth bitter opposition and finally failed of passage, it was proposed to reduce the school board from forty-six to seven in number, the president to be paid \$10,000 a year, and each of the members \$8000. This was much the same plan as was

¹ The confusion of the city school-district organization with that of the city municipal government is in large part responsible for the idea that the elections must be held at the same time, and by the same methods. In Portland, Oregon, for example, where the school-district government has been kept clear and distinct from the city-hall government, the school elections have been held quietly each June, irrespective of the biennial city election in May. A number of California cities now follow the same plan, and in California the non-partisan election, with sponsors for candidates, has been well developed.

² The result in San Francisco was to demoralize the school system, and in 1921 the plan was abandoned. The school board soon became a board of superintendents, reducing the proper supervisory force to the rank of clerks. The only way they could put in full time and earn their pay was to do things that board members ought not to do at all. See "School Situation in San Francisco"; in *Educational Review*, vol. 21, pp. 364-83. (April, 1901.)

followed in San Francisco from 1898 to 1921. In the controversy over this proposal the fundamental principles underlying paid and unpaid boards were fully brought out.¹

It may be accepted as a fundamental principle in American educational administration that a school board should not be paid for its services. In our cities there has so far never been any difficulty in securing the services of an unpaid board, and there is not likely to be. Our schools lie so close to the interests and hopes of parents and public-spirited citizens that there is not likely to exist, once made the conditions and the office right, any trouble in enlisting the coöperation of men and women who will be willing to serve the schools, for a term of years, without any pay for their services.

Origin of pay proposals. All proposals to pay members come from other than students of educational administration. It is not the lack of pay which keeps those best qualified to serve off our school boards, while even a small salary attached to the office makes it attractive to just the type of man who ought not to be selected for board member at all.

¹ See especially seven letters between Mayor Gaynor and President Nicholas Murray Butler on the subject, reprinted in the *Educational Review* for September, 1911 (vol. 42, pp. 204-10), and the letter of Mr. C. W. Bardeen, of Syracuse, to the President of the Public Education Association of New York, reprinted in the same journal for October, 1911 (vol. 42, pp. 322-24).

Mr. Bardeen, among other things, said:

"The only object of the paid board of education, as the proposed provisions show, is to substitute its authority for the authority now vested in the superintendent; in other words, to substitute the amateur for the expert; the theorist for the man who has tried: the lawyer, the merchant, the physician, for men who have had equally long and severe training in the business of teaching. Mayor Gaynor would not think of proposing a judiciary board made up of leading public men who should dictate to the superior court judge what his decisions should be, and yet the superintendents of New York are quite as expert in their subject and chosen quite as carefully as the justices of the supreme bench."

A salary is all the more dangerous an incentive where the people elect the board members.

Practically all proposals to attach a salary to the office of a school-board member are based on a complete misunderstanding as to what are the proper functions of a city board for school control.¹ These we shall elaborate in the succeeding chapter, but suffice it here to say that it is not the proper function of a school board to administer the schools in any detail, and that there is no work which the members can do to earn any salary worth mentioning without interfering with, or doing over again, the work of the professional officer or officers of the school system. An ideal board member is a man accustomed to handle business matters promptly, to consider the recommendations of superintendents, principals, and business officers in a broad and unbiased manner, and to pass judgment on affairs of expenditure or policy. Such men do not serve for pay, nor will they devote all of their time to the business of the schools. A *per-diem* basis of pay tends to multiply meetings, builds up and perpetuates committee control, and leads to the exercise of functions which boards should let alone; while an annual salary of any size tends to make the office a job, tends to fill the board with a mediocre membership, and leads to unnecessary interference with the proper work of the board's executive officers.

No *ex-officio* members. In some New England cities, and found occasionally elsewhere, the mayor of the city is, *ex officio*, a member of the school board. This provision, like that for the appointment of the school committee by the city council, is a survival of the old board-of-selectmen control of the schools. In these cities the people have not as yet attained to the conception of the school district as a

¹ This is well shown in Mayor Gaynor's letters. He entirely misconceived the function of a board of education.

separate and distinct corporation, but think of it rather as a division of the city government. The assumption seems to be either that the board of education needs close oversight in its work by some municipal authority, or that the mayor, by virtue of his high station, may contribute superior wisdom to the board in its conduct of the schools.

While occasionally a mayor may be able to contribute to a wise decision on school policies, far too often he proves to be a hindrance of the worst type. By the very nature of his official duties he cannot be as well informed on educational matters as the members of the board of education, while his position as mayor tends to give his opinions a weight entirely out of proportion to their value. Only when political considerations are uppermost is he able to interpret the shifting moods of popular feeling better, and he is quite likely to exalt the tax issue at the expense of the education of children. Problems of personnel usually interest him more than problems of educational policy. The quiet and orderly work of a school board is likely to be seriously interfered with by the presence of a mayor, or a representative of the city council, in its membership.

From the legal point of view there is no reason whatever why the mayor of a city, or any other city official, for that matter, should be *ex officio* a member of a board of education. The schools are not city schools, and the school district is not a part of the municipal corporation. Even its finances should be separate and distinct, and, within limits set by state law, the board of education should determine its own expenditures. Experience has shown clearly that a board of education endowed by law with full authority to manage the school system, and responsible only to the electorate of the district, is almost certain to be a more efficient body than is one that is subject to continual political and personal interference by city officials.

Dependence on *vs.* independence of the city government. In the present stage of the development of municipal government the student of educational administration is thankful that the schools are, at their foundation at least, state and not local affairs, and that a constantly growing body of school law regulates and controls many of the details of the conduct of the schools within the cities. As was pointed out in Chapter VI, the chief danger in such control lies in that the state oversight may become too narrow and too restrictive in matters where local liberty should be granted.

The most important work of any community is that of providing public education for its children. In its deeper significance this work completely transcends in importance the work of the street, police, fire, sewer, parks, or any other city administrative department. It looks primarily to the future, rather than to the present, and its aim clearly is to improve upon conditions now existing. It is chiefly because of this larger and more distant aim of education that the work of the schools is misunderstood so frequently by the people.

The ordinary citizen and the schools. The ordinary citizen, the average lawyer, the city official, to some extent the municipal-government expert as well, and all who like to see a logical city administrative organization, find it hard to understand why students of educational administration object to such a logical subordination of the schools.¹ To them school costs are to be fitted into the general city tax rate. With them the school service is regarded as practically on the same plane as any other municipal service. Consequently contracts should be properly distributed locally, and jobs should be properly passed around among

¹ This was clearly apparent in the Butler-Gaynor letters, to which reference has previously been made.

the daughters of the electorate. The meaning of competency in school work is scarcely understood, and the poor teacher or janitor has a large hold on their sympathy. That the result is deadening and disastrous to the finer work of the schools, that the teachers and administrative officers do not do their best work under such conditions, and that the intellectual life and moral tone of the city is lowered in consequence, they cannot see.

That plundering the schools is not on a par with plundering the public treasury many also cannot see. If money is illegally or unnecessarily taken from the public treasury the tax rate is only raised a little. In time, if the mismanagement becomes too bad, the grand jury investigates, there is a municipal house cleaning, the charter or the form of government perhaps is changed, and all is well once more. If the schools, however, are plundered through contracts and building operations and degraded by the employment and retention of incompetent place-hunters, the penalty is not only a higher tax rate, but a lower moral tone and a weakened intellectual life for the city, the influence of which extends throughout the whole of the life of the generation of children then in the schools. This, also, the ordinary lawyer, politician, mayor, or "man in the street" does not see, and can scarcely be made to appreciate.

Because the student of educational administration does appreciate these differences, and because he knows, from the experience of cities generally, how easy it is to subordinate educational efficiency to political expediency, he does not favor any more connections between the city government and the school department than are absolutely necessary. Laws that put the school department at the mercy of the city council are unsound in principle, contrary to the legal establishment of the school, and frequently lead to deplorable results.

Disadvantages of city control. The school boards of our cities almost always lay larger claim to character, fitness, and disinterestedness than do members of the city council in the same city, and, as a rule, they are far more respectable and responsible.¹ One important step, then, in the elimination of politics from city school administration is the almost complete separation of the school department from the municipal government. Subordination to the mayor also frequently leads to a similar situation. Not many mayors are wise enough to keep their hands off the school department, and any school system in which the board members need to consult the mayor before taking important action is one in which the educational policy is likely to be both vacillating and weak.

On the other hand, the school board which can act independently of municipal control, consulting only the educational needs of the school district, and can, within the limits set by law, certify or levy the funds needed for school maintenance, is a board which is likely to carry forward a strong and a continuously progressive educational policy, and one likely to develop a school system which will render valuable service in improving the intelligence and the moral tone of the community.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is action by the State in fixing, by general law, the size and method of selection of the board of education justified?
2. Why is a board small enough to meet around a single table more likely to transact the public business quietly and expeditiously than one where the members have separate tables or desks scattered about the room?
3. In Indiana, for many years, the city council appointed the

¹ See A. S. Draper: "Plans for Organization for School Purposes in Large Cities," in *Educational Review*, June, 1893.

school boards, one member each year for a three-year term. This worked fairly well there, but has since been abandoned by all the larger cities. What is your judgment as to this method, and why?

4. What is your judgment of the Houston method, and why?
5. What is the fundamental defect in any such logical city organization for the work of the educational department as is represented by Schenectady or San Francisco?
6. Is Draper's argument for separate organization for the schools sound?
7. Can a scheme be provided which will insure a city a school board of a type much in advance of the general tone and character of the city itself? If possible, how far would it be desirable to do so?
8. Eliot says that after two terms there should be a break in membership; that is, after the completion of the second term, a member should be ineligible for membership until after a lapse of at least one year. Is this a good idea, or not? Why?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. What method is used in constituting city boards of education in your State? What is their present size and term, and what tendencies in school-board organization have been manifest in your State during the past two decades?
2. Are school boards paid in your State? If so, how much, and with what results?
3. After reading the articles by De Weese, *The Dial*, Jones and the discussion following, Mowry, and Tufts, what is your judgment as to appointed or elected boards?
4. After reading the Butler-Gaynor correspondence, the Bardeen letter, and the article describing the San Francisco situation, what is your judgment as to paying boards of education for their services? Why?
5. Contrast the Schenectady organization, as outlined in the *Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education* (1913, vol. I, pp. 99-100), with the St. Louis organization (Eliot). Which is the more likely to produce good educational organization and administration, and why?

PROBLEMS

1. Outline, in the form of a charter provision or a law, your ideas, as a result of the discussion of this chapter, as to the best plan for the organization of a school board for some small or medium-sized city which you know.
2. Draw up a plan for the sponsored non-partisan nomination and election of school-board members, at a spring school election, held uniformly throughout the State and separate from any state or municipal election, and so simple in plan as to be both inexpensive and effective.
3. Suppose that a school janitor, under the Schenectady plan, is unsatisfactory to the school principal, and it is decided to ask for his removal. Draw up a diagram showing the process and the route, and assume that those who appointed him tend to protect him. Estimate the time needed to get rid of him.

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CHAPTER XIII

FUNCTIONS OF BOARDS FOR SCHOOL CONTROL

The board as a body. The board for school control, however constituted and by whatever official title it may be known, is the successor in point of authority of the old town or district school meeting, in which the people met and represented themselves. There they voted taxes for the support of the school, ordered repairs made to the school-house, selected a teacher or appointed a committee to do so for them, and then turned over to the teacher the control of the school. Later on they voted to delegate the testing of the qualifications of the teacher and the visitation of the school to those who could best represent their interests for them.

Boards for school control in our cities to-day, as the successors of the town or district meeting, now represent the people in the matter of schools, and through such boards the people now exercise control over the education provided at public expense for their children. The school-board members are merely citizens, selected as their representatives by the people of the community. As individuals they are still citizens; only when the board is in formal session do they have any actual authority.

It is the board, acting as a body, which in the name of the people controls the schools, and not the individual members who, when in session, compose it. Even when the board is in formal session, the individual members have only a voice and a vote, and their control over the schools is through the votes whereby rules, regulations, and policies are adopted. To have authority otherwise the authority must be expressly

delegated to a member by the board as a body, and by vote, and his authority then extends only so far as specified by such vote of the board. Members, to be sure, often attempt to exercise authority at other times, and frequently do so, but such authority is usurped authority and authority for which there is little or no legal right.

Boards continuous and changing. All boards for school control are, in the eyes of the law, continuous bodies. They are bodies corporate, may sue and be sued, have a seal, hold title to the school property, pass the title to their successors in office, may sell and legally deed property not needed for school purposes, and, in case a majority should at any time and for any cause cease to exist, the functions of the board are merely suspended but do not die.

On the other hand, the board is kaleidoscopic. Both the personnel and the character of the board change rapidly. Often the men or women in the community best fitted for school-board membership do not find their way to it. Men of limited education and inexperienced in school affairs, and with but little conception as to what constitutes good administration of public education, are constantly elected by the people to membership on the board. On assuming membership, conceiving that they have been elected to manage the schools, they proceed to do so in a manner which accords well with their inexperience and lack of technical knowledge. The older members of the board and the superintendent of schools have to keep constantly in mind the slow education of the newcomer. The longer the term of office and the more gradual the replacement, the less the school administration of a city is disturbed by such changes in the representatives of the people.

Types of school-board members. The city which keeps an able school board continuously in office is indeed fortunate. In most cities such boards alternate with poor boards;

in some cities good school boards scarcely exist at all. In most cities the board is a combination of diverse elements, and represents, fairly well, the general average of intelligence of the electorate and the average conceptions of the people as to the administration of public education. A city school board composed of a machinist, a retired gentleman, a grocer, a shoe clerk, a real-estate agent, a druggist, a lumberyard foreman, a hotel-keeper, an old and busy lawyer, a bookkeeper, a young lawyer without much business, and a banker, might be considered to be a board of the better type.

All of these men are upright and honest citizens, interested in schools and in the education of their children, and more or less successful in their different lines of work. The chief trouble with them is not their honesty or their general intelligence or their willingness to serve, but rather that they know so little about what constitutes good school administration that they are likely to think that, because they have children in the schools, they know all about how the schools should be conducted. Should they think so, as most new members of boards of education do, they are almost certain to attempt what they are not competent to handle, and the result is both disastrous and pathetic.

If, in place of six of the better members of the board described above, we substitute a teamster, a former elementary-school teacher with no business ability or interest in business affairs, an ignorant old man, a young politician with little or no visible means of support, a social uplifter lacking in balance, and a crank with an educational hobby, as often happens as a result of city elections or appointments by mayors, we get a combination which is likely to do much to destroy the efficiency of a school system by turning it into a city patronage department, by attempting to perform almost every technical and professional function which a board should leave to experts to perform, and by blocking

the progressive proposals of the superintendent of schools. The superintendent resigns, the teachers who can get away do so, and the schools rapidly deteriorate under such administrative conditions.

The committee form of control. The most common means by which mismanagement and interference with the technical and professional functions of the experts of the school department comes is through the attempt of such boards to manage the schools by means of a large number of standing committees. Committees commonly exist, such as those on courses of study, textbooks, instruction, and promotions and grading, which simply cannot exercise intelligently any of the functions usually assigned to such bodies. The work attempted by such committees involves professional knowledge and judgment which no city board of education, either as a body or through a committee, ought ever to try to assume.

Taking the board of the better type given above, let us distribute the membership among the different standing committees which we may assume such a board to have provided for in its rules and regulations. Giving each man the chairmanship of one committee, which is a very common proceeding, and then distributing the members in order of number to complete the membership of each committee, we get the following result:

COMMITTEES	MEMBERSHIP
1. Teachers and Instruction.	(1) Machinist, (2) retired gentleman, (3) grocer.
2. Courses of Study.	(2) Retired gentleman, (4) shoe clerk, (5) real-estate agent.
3. Textbooks and Apparatus.	(3) Grocer, (6) druggist, (7) lumberyard foreman.
4. School Supplies.	(4) Shoe clerk, (8) hotel-keeper, (9) busy lawyer.

COMMITTEES

MEMBERSHIP

5. Buildings and Grounds.	(5) Real-estate agent, (10) book-keeper, (11) young lawyer.
6. Janitors and Sanitation.	(6) Druggist, (1) machinist, (2) retired gentleman.
7. Rules and Grievances.	(7) Lumberyard foreman, (3) grocer, (4) shoe clerk.
8. Promotions and Graduation.	(8) Hotel-keeper, (5) real-estate agent, (6) druggist.
9. Kindergartens.	(9) Busy lawyer, (7) lumberyard foreman, (8) hotel-keeper.
10. Elementary Schools.	(10) Bookkeeper, (9) busy lawyer, (11) young lawyer.
11. High Schools.	(11) Young lawyer, (1) machinist, (10) bookkeeper.
12. Presiding Officer.*	(12) Banker.

* *Ex officio* a member of all committees.

While the above is, of course, a hypothetical case, it would not be at all surprising if the outline represented an actual condition in some city in the United States. The equivalent, at least, of such an arrangement exists in many of our cities.

The trouble with any such arrangement of committees and distribution of work lies in that there is little that such committees can do intelligently, or ought ever to attempt to do, in the government of any city school system. They must either delegate their work in turn to the superintendent of schools or some other executive officer, or continually interfere with the proper work of the superintendent, making blunder after blunder as they work. The pity of the situation is that too often neither they nor the people they represent know that they are blundering and mismanaging the most important undertaking of the community. When the superintendent of schools objects to their blundering and mismanagement they do not understand him, think he does not appreciate their interest in and zeal for their work,

and often consider him as merely greedy for power if he attempts to take over what they are trying to do.

Committee control applied to hospital management. The absurdity of such committee control of professional and technical matters will be seen more easily if we assume that this same board of twelve men has been elected by the people to represent them in the management of a municipal hospital, and that they then divided themselves up as before, for purposes of control, into eleven approximately equivalent committees. We then get the following results:

COMMITTEES	MEMBERSHIP
1. Doctors and Nurses.	(1) Machinist, (2) retired gentleman, (3) grocer.
2. Medical Treatment.	(2) Retired gentleman, (4) shoe clerk, (5) real-estate agent.
3. Drugs and Instruments.	(3) Grocer, (6) druggist, (7) lumberyard foreman.
4. Ward and Kitchen Supplies.	(4) Shoe clerk, (8) hotel-keeper, (9) busy lawyer.
5. Buildings and Grounds.	(5) Real-estate agent, (10) bookkeeper, (11) young lawyer.
6. Nurses and Attendants.	(6) Druggist, (1) machinist, (2) retired gentleman.
7. Complaints.	(7) Lumberyard foreman, (3) grocer, (4) shoe clerk.
8. Operative Cases.	(8) Hotel-keeper, (5) real-estate agent, (6) druggist.
9. Maternity Ward.	(9) Busy lawyer, (7) lumberyard foreman, (8) hotel-keeper.
10. Children's Ward.	(10) Bookkeeper, (9) busy lawyer, (11) young lawyer.
11. Contagious Diseases.	(11) Young lawyer, (1) machinist, (10) bookkeeper.
12. Presiding Officer.*	(12) Banker.

* *Ex officio* a member of all committees.

Take for granted now that these eleven committees assume the same degree of control over the hospital that such committees do over the schools, and the same degree of authority, individually and collectively, over the superintendent, doctors, and nurses, that similar committees and committee members frequently do over the superintendent of schools, the principals, and the teachers in the schools. The result is easily imaginable, yet the mismanagement in the case of the hospital could not be greater than very frequently takes place to-day in the management of city schools.

The chief difference lies in that, in the case of mismanagement in the administration of a hospital, the effect is soon visible and is easily brought within the comprehension of the people. In the case of mismanagement in the administration of a city school system the effect is concealed — the people, as yet, having no standards by means of which they can understand that mismanagement is taking place. While a good superintendent of schools makes about as good and as thorough preparation for his work as does a physician or a surgeon for his, and is about as competent in his professional field as is a physician or surgeon in his, the public does not understand this, and can hardly appreciate that such can be the case. The profession of medicine is an old one, and there has been time to evolve popular standards as to its work; the superintendent of schools is a recent evolution, and popular standards regarding his work have not yet been developed.

Committee service time-consuming. Turning back to the list of educational committees given, practically every function coming under the jurisdiction of committees 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are educational functions, and should go to the superintendent of instruction and his assistants, and grievances under 7 should go to the same place. The work of

committees 5 and 6 lies more within the province of a school board, though part of each is also clearly the work of the superintendent of schools. It is in the attempt to handle all such professional and technical matters themselves that boards of education usually make their most serious administrative errors.

Matters coming before the board are referred to these committees for consideration and report. The opinion of the superintendent of instruction usually is sought, but sometimes he is entirely ignored. The committees meet frequently, and the board meets frequently in consequence.¹ The members are earnest, the new problems are interesting to them, and they frequently sacrifice much time and show a deep devotion to duty in their efforts to render service to the schools. Ofttimes, when the time consumed in such committee work and board meetings is considered, one is led to wonder how any one except a man of wealth and leisure, or a young man of no particular business, can afford to accept membership on such a school board.²

Committee action illustrated. A few examples, all actual cases, which have come to the writer's attention, will illustrate the overactivity of committees.

In one city the board committee on course of study meets with the principals and teachers, and formulates and approves even the

¹ The school board at Portland, Oregon (see *Survey Report*, chap. II), illustrates the process very well. The board of five was divided into eight standing committees, with two members and the president on each, each member being on four of the eight committees. These committees met weekly, and sometimes oftener, and the board as a whole, in addition to the seven regular fortnightly meetings, held sixteen special meetings during the three months between February 20 and May 23, for which tabulations were made.

² The twenty different types of business considered, given in the *Portland Survey Report* (chap. II), further illustrate the point. Here a board, composed of good men, was engaged in supervising minute details in the administration of the schools, while the paid executive officers acted largely as clerks to transmit requests and to report back decisions.

smallest details of its administration. The superintendent is seldom consulted, and naturally disclaims any responsibility for the kind of instruction offered.

In another city the board meets with the principals in the matter of changes in the teaching force, sees personally all applicants for positions, and elects and discharges, from vest-pocket memoranda, and as influenced by the pressure of interested friends.

In another city the committee on books and library spent thousands of dollars in purchasing an adult's library for the high school, which was of little use for teaching purposes, and books for the grades which were not at all suited to the needs of the pupils.

In another city the supply committee, in favoring a particular local dealer, furnished such a poor quality of writing paper that good writing exercises or composition work during the ensuing year were next to impossible.

In still another city the supply committee ordered the supply estimate of the superintendent for the year's needs cut fifty per cent, with the result that teachers and classes had but most limited supplies for their work.

In another city the committee on buildings met frequently, for months, with a local architect, in evolving a plan for a new grammar-school building, to be the largest and finest in the city, and, after the plans had been approved and the foundations were in, the board was finally convinced that half of the rooms were poorly lighted — four of them so poorly as to be unfit for use — and stopped the work to reconsider the matter.

In two other cities, members of the teachers, instruction, or course of study committee go to the schools, observe the instruction, and criticize the work of the teachers and the management of the principals.

In city P — the committee on printing reported against allowing the superintendent of schools to have a certain perfectly harmless form of letter-head printed; in city B — the committee on supplies recommended against allowing the purchase of a certain brand of salad-dressing desired for the domestic-science work, on the ground that other brands could be purchased for less money. The reports in both cases were adopted by the board.

Hines tells of a case where the blacksmith at the head of the textbook committee determined the Latin book to be

used in the high school.¹ The writer knows of a case where the chairman of the same committee stopped the use of a certain United States history in the high-school classes, because he did not think it fair to the Northern side, he being a prominent G.A.R. man.

A confusion in functions. All of these cases of over-activity on the part of board members and board committees arise from a wrong conception as to what the members were elected or appointed to do. A school board is elected primarily as a board of school control, to determine policies, select experts, approve new undertakings, and determine expenditures, and the members transform it into a board of administration and supervision for the detailed oversight of the work of the schools. This no board of laymen should undertake to do.

In all such matters as the outlining or changing of courses of study, the selection of textbooks and library books, judging the character or the competency of the instruction, the selection, assignment, promotion, and dismissal of teachers and janitors, and the engineering and hygienic problems of schoolhouse construction, boards and their committees should not attempt independent action. Instead, experts competent to deal with such problems should be employed, and their opinions should be sought and followed. In case a board doubts the wisdom of an opinion it should either postpone the matter for further consideration with the expert, secure an additional opinion from an outside disinterested expert, or employ a new expert whose judgment they are willing to follow. If the expert knows his business the board is almost certain to act unwisely if it acts in opposition to his judgment.²

¹ See L. R. Hines: "The Ideal School Board from the Superintendent's Point of View"; in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1911, p. 1001.

² This calls for an exercise of self-restraint which many strong men find it hard to carry out, as the desire to control is pronounced in such men.

The real work of the board. This does not mean that a board of education will have nothing left to do, though its labors will naturally be materially reduced. Freed from the details of school administration and supervision, and from the pulls and influences which surround detailed work on many of the larger features of the administrative problem, the board is now free to devote its energies to the problems of its work as a board for school control. These relate to the selection, from time to time, of its expert advisers, a problem upon which far more time and care should be spent than is usually given to it; the selection of school sites, always with the larger future needs of the community in mind; the determination of the type of schools to be provided; the adoption of a set of rules and regulations governing the board in its transaction of school business, and all employees of the school department; the adoption of a salary schedule for the school system; the determination of the annual budget and tax levy; the consideration of recommendations for the expansion of the school system; the prevention of legislation by the city, or by the legislature, which is against the best interests of the schools under their control; and the proper presentation, to the people whom they represent, of the work and needs of the schools and the policies of the school department.

The board should approve courses of study, adopt textbooks, and appoint teachers and other school employees, only on the recommendation of its chief executive officer; order bills paid and contracts approved, after certification by its clerk or business manager that they are correct; and serve as a court of appeal in cases only where the superintendent of schools has not been able to effect a satisfactory settlement.

It is these larger problems of control which are most important, but which are almost certain to be neglected when a

school board undertakes to transform itself into a board either of administration or supervision, and to handle the details of school control.

Legislative and executive functions. In other words, boards of education should act as legislative, and not as executive bodies, and a clear distinction¹ should be drawn between what are legislative and what are executive functions. The legislative functions belong, by right, to the board, and the legislation should be enacted, after discussion, by means of formal and recorded votes. The board's work, as the representative of the people, is to sit in judgment on proposals, to determine the general policy of the school system, and to see that policies decided upon are carried out by the superintendent and his staff.²

Once a policy has been decided upon, however, its execution should rest with the executive officer or officers em-

¹ "The duties of the board of education as fixed by law involve the establishment and maintenance of a public school system. This implies that the board, acting for the people, shall prescribe the general educational policy of the city, determining, on the one hand, the kind and number of buildings to be erected for school purposes, and on the other what shall be taught in the schools, and spending economically and fairly the school funds for these purposes. The administration in detail of the schools, either on the educational or on the business side, cannot be carried on by the board acting as a whole, and should not be carried on by a system of committee management." (*Report of the Educational Commission of Chicago*, p. 14.)

² "Its functions are not executive, but legislative, deliberative, advisory, and report hearing. In the nature of the case, being a lay body, it cannot itself run the schools. Instead, it is there to represent the people by performing for them certain delegated functions of selecting experts to run the schools, advising with them as to how the people would have public education conducted, examining into the sufficiency of their plans, passing upon their reports of results, and maintaining a general oversight over all that they do; upholding and protecting them in their work as long as it is satisfactory, and putting others in their places as soon as it ceases to be so." (E. C. Moore: *How New York City Administers its Schools*, p. 89.)

ployed by the board,¹ the chief of whom naturally will be the superintendent of schools. If the board desires information on any question, it should direct its executive officer or officers to furnish it. On the recommendations submitted the board should sit in judgment, and, until convinced of the wisdom of the recommendations, the board should hold them in abeyance. In all matters which are strictly professional, and which relate to the details of administration, the board should refuse to act in any way until the matter has first been brought before the proper executive officer, and his decision should not be reversed unless the board is thoroughly convinced that he is wrong. Even then, in many cases, the board will be wise not to act hastily.

In certain strictly professional matters, such as the outlining of courses of study, the selection of textbooks, the nomination of teachers for appointment or promotion, and the supervision of the instruction, boards should be deprived, by general law, of the right to act except upon his recommendation. The wisdom of such a separation of functions in the administration of a city school system has been shown repeatedly in our city schools. It is when boards or board committees, anxious to direct and manage and supervise as well as to govern, seize executive and supervisory functions and begin to displace the chosen executive officers in the administration of the school system, that trouble usually begins to develop.

In the exercise of its legitimate legislative functions the board will need few, if any, standing committees. If the board is small, say five or seven, action can be taken better as a whole, all committees being purely temporary. In any case, three committees will be sufficient for even a large

¹ Decisions which determine what and how problems shall be solved or jobs done are policies; the application of policies to single or individual problems or jobs are administrative details.

board, namely, a committee on educational affairs, a committee on business affairs, and a committee on buildings and finance. The first would consider the recommendations of the superintendent of instruction in all educational matters; the second would, in a broad way, consider the business matters of the school department; while the third would deal with the larger matters of finance for yearly maintenance, sites, and new buildings. Most students of educational administration feel that school board standing committees serve little or no useful purpose, and should be prohibited by law. If retained they should be advisory committees, as in industry, and not executive committees, as they are at present.

Selection of executive officers. Such a separation of legislative and executive functions means the selection of a properly trained expert, or experts, and then giving to such men both responsibility and power. The board of education then becomes what it should be — a real board for school control. The selection of such experts is one of the most important functions any board is called upon to exercise, and hasty or careless action here is likely to interfere seriously with the efficiency of the schools for years to come.

The first and most important of these officials, and in many cities the only one to be chosen, is the superintendent of schools. It is he who gives tone and character to the entire school system. To select local men because they are local men, to promote the principal of the high school because he is considered next in line, to consider only those who come and apply for the place, or to consider, for a moment, any such purely extraneous reasons as locality, politics, religion, fraternal-order membership, club or social influence, or mere good nature and personal acceptability, is a sure way to head toward a serious mistake. To allow city politics or political trades to determine the choice also is a sure way

to engraft an incompetent and a politician on the system — one whom the board will find it hard to get rid of, and one whom they will sooner or later be forced to override and ignore. The best men do not seek office by these means. Still more, the men most worth having usually do not seek the office at all. They do not have to. While not always true, in a general way it might be said that a man's ability properly to fill the position of superintendent of schools in a city is about inversely proportional to the effort he makes to secure the position.

Bases for selection. Instead, the board should regard the selection of its superintendent of schools as the most important duty it ever has to perform. Instead of considering only those who apply, the board itself should make an active and an intelligent search for the best man or woman available for the money which the city can afford to pay. This, too, is no place to economize. The salary should be made large, so as to tempt the best men,¹ and the tenure should be long enough also to offer attractions.²

The authority to be assured the new superintendent, too, should be commensurate with the importance of the service the board expects him to render to the city. The things which should count with the board are his general education,

¹ The difference between a salary of \$5000 and \$6000 for a city of 20,000 inhabitants, is a *per-capita* difference of only five cents per year, but to the superintendent, on an estimated cost of \$4000 a year for living, \$6000 is twice as large a salary as \$5000, and hence will draw a very much better grade of man. It is a fundamental mistake for a board to economize or haggle here when good men are under consideration. Similarly, for a city of 150,000 inhabitants, a salary of \$10,000 costs but one cent more per inhabitant per year than does a salary of \$7500, when in quality of service it should purchase at least twice as efficient a superintendent.

² The usual one-year tenure is most undesirable, and is unattractive to the best men. It does not give a man a proper chance to work out an educational policy, and too often is used by boards to keep a superintendent in proper subjection.

his specific training for the work of city school supervision, his past administrative experience, what men prominent in educational work have to say about him when asked confidentially for an opinion,¹ and his personality, force, gentlemanly ways, and general grasp of the problem as shown in a personal interview. What the board should seek is a man of strength, courage, personal force, general knowledge, and professional skill — one who can look them in the eye with a confidence born of being the master of his calling.

If other executive officers are to be selected, such as a school clerk, a business manager, a school architect or engineer, or a superintendent of attendance or of health, similar care should be exercised in making each selection. After the selection has been made the board should turn the executive functions over to such executive officers, and then expect them to look after their part in the administrative organization in a wise and intelligent manner. If they cannot or will not do so — that is, if the board has made a mistake in its selection — a change in executive head should be made at the first opportunity.²

Types of board members. To render such intelligent service to the school system of a city as has been indicated requires the selection of a peculiar type of citizen for school-

¹ General letters of recommendation should be discarded here. What is wanted is confidential letters from those whose educational opinion is worth while, and also from former employing boards, written directly and in reply to specific questions as to the ability of the person under consideration to handle a certain specified problem or situation. A personal interview also should be sought, and, if the distance to be traveled is far, it should be at the expense of the school district.

² If the superintendent makes mistakes in carrying out policies or in judgment, the board should point them out to him. The board should lay down the fundamental policies it wants carried out, but it should not run the schools for the superintendent. If the superintendent cannot do the work the board should let him go, and find a man who can handle the school system in the light of predetermined policies.

board member. In many respects it calls for a higher and a more intelligent type of community service than is called for in any other branch of municipal work. Remembering that it is the function of a school board to select experts for the executive work, and to govern by deciding upon the larger matters of policy, expansion, and expenditure, and not to administer or supervise, in any detail, the school system under their control, we can deduce the type of man, or woman, most likely to prove useful as a member of a city board for school control.

Men who are successful in the handling of large business undertakings — manufacturers, merchants, bankers, contractors, and professional men of large practice — would perhaps come first. Such men are accustomed to handling business rapidly; are usually wide awake, sane, and progressive; are not afraid to spend money intelligently; are in the habit of depending upon experts for advice, and for the execution of administrative details; and have the tact and perseverance necessary to get the most efficient service out of everybody, from superintendent down. Such men, too, think for themselves, can resist pressure, and can explain the reasons for their actions. College graduates who are successful in their business or professional affairs, whatever may be their profession or occupation, also usually make good board members, provided their education has been liberal enough to enable them to understand properly the cultural side of public education.¹ Middle-aged men, or women,

¹ Chancellor, in *Our Schools; Their Administration and Supervision* (p. 11), thus describes an ideal school-board member:

- “1. Age from thirty to sixty-five years.
2. Education, at least to the extent of high-school graduation.
3. Experience in the affairs of property, or of a business.
4. The confidence in himself and the reputation for good judgment that comes with success in one's personal affairs.”

Hines (see chapter references) also gives an excellent outline of what constitutes a good school-board member.

usually make better school-board members than do either those who are young or old.

On the other hand, the list of those who usually do not make good school-board members is much larger. Inexperienced young men, unsuccessful men, old men who have retired from business, politicians, newspaper men, ministers, uneducated or relatively ignorant men, and men in minor business positions, are usually considered as undesirable for school-board membership. Former grade-school teachers who are now married and have children in the schools,¹ unless they have had a business experience which has broadened their viewpoint, also should be classed with those who usually do not make good school-board members.² All such persons tend to deal too much with details, to miss the importance of large points of view, and housewives and former teachers in particular tend to visit the schools too

¹ "Certain worthy citizens seem to think that any person who has ever taught school is *a priori* fitted thereby to become a member of a school board; not only fit to become a board member but ready to step in and supervise the work of the teachers. There is no more troublesome type of board member at large than the one who has taught school once upon a time, numerous years ago, has not recovered from the fact, and has made no attempt to keep up with educational progress since leaving the profession." (Peter Ronalson, in *American School Board Journal*, February, 1925, p. 36.)

² "The thought that women would make better board members than men has its source largely in the erroneous notion that the board member's business is to deal directly with schoolroom problems, have conferences with the teachers and pupils, and do many things a woman can do as well as a man. The board member, according to such ideas, is actually to supervise the work of the schools. The truth of the matter is that the affairs of the school board are largely business matters. The fixing of tax rates, the distribution of funds, the erection of buildings, the providing of repairs to buildings, listening to complaints of citizens, buying supplies, hiring janitors, etc., constitute the greatest part of the school board's business. The average refined, sensitive woman is not fitted in any way to deal with such things. As a board member she is likely to tire soon of the only work she can do without interfering with the actual working of the schools with which she is connected." (Hines [see chapter references], p. 998.)

much and to assume executive authority when and where they should not.¹ Perhaps still more objectionable than any of these are people of any class or either sex who desire to ride an educational hobby, or those who wish to get on the school board to revolutionize things. The crank, the hobby-rider, the social reformer, or the extremist should never be put on boards of education. What is wanted is a sane, an evenly balanced, and an all-around business administration of the schools, leaving the details of school administration to those who can handle them best.

Results of faithful service. The service rendered by a broad-minded and progressive school board, free from political, denominational, and fraternal influences; a school board that works with the higher welfare of the schools under its control constantly in mind; one that extends to its executive officers the confidence and intelligent sympathy which brings out the best in each of them, so that all connected with the schools feel assured of their wisdom and fairness — such a community service is one the importance of which is hard to overestimate. To few men in any community comes the opportunity for finer or more enduring service. To feel that one has by his labors contributed to conditions which have resulted in a better moral tone in the community and a quickened intellectual life for all, is a personal satisfaction which is more attractive than money to the type of men most likely to make good school-board members.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is the school administration in a city less disturbed by changes in the personnel of the school board when the term is

¹ Chancellor, in *Our Schools; Their Administration and Supervision* (pp. 12-16 and 61-67), gives a more detailed explanation why these various classes usually make good or bad school-board members. Hines also should be read on this point.

long and the replacement gradual than when the opposite is true?

2. Why is it natural for a new school-board member to feel that he has been elected to manage the schools?
3. Why does the public have trouble in appreciating that a good school superintendent is as skillful and technically as well trained as a physician or a surgeon?
4. Why, when a superintendent of schools objects to board mismanagement and asks for power commensurate with the responsibility he feels for proper administration, is he said to be "hungry for power," or "desirous to rule," whereas similar demands from a doctor in charge of a hospital or a superintendent in charge of a factory would be sustained by public opinion?
5. Why, if a nurse is unskillful and as a result patients die, does she receive little sympathy when discharged, whereas an unsuccessful teacher, under whom children die intellectually, frequently gets much public sympathy, and can often put the superintendent on trial if he attempts to secure her dismissal?
6. Explain what you understand by a separation of legislative and executive functions. Does a state legislature assume executive functions? Does a city council? Does a board of directors for a bank?
7. Why have school boards assumed executive functions more than other legislative bodies?
8. Is the existence of a number of standing committees a constant temptation to a board to exercise executive functions?
9. What advantages do you see would accrue to a board of education if it referred all matters involving professional functions to the superintendent of schools, and refused to act on such except on his recommendation?
10. Suppose that the superintendent of schools cannot or will not exercise executive functions, has little or no educational policy, and a weak way of dealing with administrative questions and problems; should the board or its committees assume his functions and manage the schools?
11. Should a board ever attempt to plan a school building?
12. Have you ever known any boards which divested themselves of executive functions, and looked after the larger problems of their work? What was the general result on the schools?
13. Have you known of cases where boards were so busy with the

details of administration that they allowed legislation inimical to the best interests of the schools to go through the legislature or the council? What was the nature of such legislation?

14. Is a board justified:

- (a) In regulating the purchase of salad-dressing for the schools?
- (b) In dictating the kind of paper or pencils which must be bought?
- (c) In regulating the superintendent's stationery?
- (d) In granting an interview as a body to a man who applies for a position as a school principal?
- (e) In receiving a committee from a body of teachers who wish to recommend their principal for a vacant supervisor's position?
- (f) In requiring a high-school principal to apply to them for permission to have a distinguished visitor speak to the high-school students?
- (g) In ordering the purchase for the schools of books or apparatus specified by them?

If so, under what conditions or circumstances?

- 15. What is the danger of a man with an educational hobby on a school board? What misconception are the people under in selecting such a person?
- 16. Is a board of education justified, as is not infrequently done, in taking the ground that they will not consider an applicant for some important position because he has not filed a formal application?
- 17. Some superintendents contend that it is just as well that all legal powers continue to rest with boards of education, as then each superintendent secures such powers and authority as he is able to use. What do you think of this argument?
- 18. Enumerate some of the advantages which would accrue to board members if they all declined to deal with matters which were primarily executive, leaving all such to its executive officers, referring all persons to them, and taking action only on their recommendations.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

- 1. What powers are guaranteed, by general law, to city superintendents of schools in your State? In half a dozen other selected States?

2. Examine the rules and regulations of the board of education in three or four selected cities to see in how far they conform to the principles laid down in this chapter.
3. To what extent does committee control exist in the city school systems of your State, what committees are provided for, and how large are their powers?
4. After reading Olsen, Studebaker, and Theisen, list up, in what you consider to be the order of importance, the ten most important duties of boards of education.

PROBLEMS

1. Draw up so much of a set of rules and regulations for the government of a board of education as has to do with the relations which should exist between it and its chief executive officer in matters of educational policy and general administrative control of the schools; the names and work of board committees; and provide for a proper separation of legislative and executive functions.
2. Draw up a plan of procedure to be followed in the selection of a new superintendent of schools.
3. Assume five candidates, each of a different type and both sexes represented, for two vacancies on a school board. Describe and list the qualifications of each of the five; select the two you will vote for, and give your reasons for the selection.
4. The board of education in a Connecticut city recently empowered its superintendent of schools to assign the several principals to the schools in which, according to his judgment, they could render the best service. Thereupon, a local newspaper editor denounced the action as another instance of the very vicious practice of making public school appointments political footballs, and held that the school board was shirking its duty.

Assume that you were one of the school-board members, and that you decide to write a short letter to the paper on the subject. What would you write?

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CHAPTER XIV

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

A new profession. As we look back over almost a full century during which the office of superintendent of city schools has been in existence, a few names stand out with particular prominence as men who have laid — often against tremendous obstacles, often in conflict and contest to the end of their careers, and often by the sacrifice of much that men hold dear — the foundation principles of the new work to which they gave the best years of their lives. Doing a pioneer work, and often misunderstood and unappreciated by those with whom they labored, these men patiently blazed a trail for others to follow. As one of these trail blazers well put it,¹ “each traveled the trail at his own gait, with rations and blanket only, and never knowing, though caring much, where each year’s tramping would end.” Out of this developmental period of trial, conflict, discussion, and experimentation, a profession of school supervision has at last been evolved.

School supervision represents a new profession, and one which will play an increasingly important part in the development of our American life. In pecuniary, social, professional, and personal rewards it ranks with the other learned professions, while the call for city school superintendents of the right type is to-day greater than the call for lawyers, doctors, ministers, or engineers. The opportunities offered in this new profession to men of strong character, broad sympathies, high purposes, fine culture, courage, exact

¹ A. Gove: “The Trail of the City Superintendent,” in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1900, p. 215.

training, and executive skill, who are willing to take the time and spend the energy necessary to prepare themselves for large service, are to-day not excelled in any of the professions, learned or otherwise. No profession offers such large personal rewards, for the opportunity of living one's life in moulding other lives, and in helping to improve materially the intellectual tone and the moral character of a community, offers a personal reward that makes a peculiarly strong appeal to certain fine types of men and women.

Despite inadequate rewards in the past, this new profession has for long attracted to it many of the best minds of the Nation, men fully informed as to what the rising generation may become and dedicated to the service of trying to realize possibilities. Within recent years there has been a much larger realization, on the part of the public, of the importance of the office of school superintendent, and in many cities to-day the head of the school system is the best paid and best respected official in the pay of the community. To attract the best minds to the educational service, though, there should be offered here a chance to attain some of the distinguishing marks of success which mark other professional callings.

Importance of this official. Potentially, at least, the most important officer in the employ of the people of any municipality to-day is the person who directs the organization and administration of its school system, and who supervises the instruction given therein. Actually, the condition frequently is otherwise, but where the superintendent of schools is of the type he should be he ¹ renders a service the importance of which, in terms of character and future citizenship, is not approached by that of any other official in the employ

¹ Here, as elsewhere throughout this book, the masculine form is used, and for the simple reason that nearly all of our city superintendents are men. What is said, however, is equally applicable to women.

of a municipality. In popular estimation the mayor, the president of the city council, the chief of police, or the head of the fire department may occupy more important positions, but the far-reaching character of the services of a capable and energetic superintendent of schools transcends in importance any of these.

What the schools are in organization, administration, instruction, spirit, and purpose, and the position which they occupy in the eyes of the community, they are largely as the result of the actions, labors, manliness, courage, clear vision, clean living, and common-sense of the superintendent of schools. About him and his work the schools revolve, and it is largely he who makes or mars the system. What he is, the schools, under proper administrative conditions, become; what he is not, they often plainly show.

Large duties of the office. His is the central office in the school system, up to which and down from which authority, direction, and inspiration flow. He is the organizer and director of the work of the schools in all of their different phases, and the representative of the schools and all for which the schools stand before the people of the community. He is the executive officer of the school board, and also its eyes, and ears, and brains. He is the supervisor of the instruction in the schools, and also the leader, adviser, inspirer, and friend of the teachers, and between them and the board of education he must, at times, interpose as an arbiter. Amid all his various duties, however, the interests of the children in the schools must be his chief care, and the larger educational interests of the community as a whole he must keep constantly in mind.

The position of superintendent of schools in a modern city, if properly filled, is a full man's job, and calls for the best that is in a strong, capable, well-trained, and mature man. It is a position for which a young man ought to be willing

to spend many years in hard and painstaking preparation. To be able to obtain a small superintendency at thirty, and a large and important position at forty, is about what a young man desiring to prepare for the work should be content to expect. It is a position for which years of careful preparation should be made, and, given equal native ability, the more careful has been the preparation the larger is likely to be the ultimate success.

Perhaps it may not be out of place, at this point, to turn from the problems of school administration proper and devote the remainder of this chapter to a description of the professional preparation which a young man, desiring to prepare for school superintendency work, should make to-day; the type of professional experience he should acquire; and the kind of personal qualities he ought to expect to bring to the work. The following may be taken to represent a minimum professional preparation, if any large future success is to be expected.

Education and training. In the first place a good college education may be considered as an absolute essential for future work, and at least a year of graduate study, doing advanced work in the study of educational problems, is practically a necessity now. Men of large grasp and ability should not stop here, but, after a few years of practical experience, should go on and obtain their doctorate.

The exact nature of the preliminary preparation is perhaps less important than that it should be good, and that it should challenge the best efforts of the student, awaken worthy ambitions, and stimulate the development of a high ideal of service. The preparation should be broad, and should early open up to the student permanent interests in fields of music and art, literature, history, science, economics, and human welfare. These he needs for breadth and understanding. His future success as the head of a school system

will to a rather large degree depend upon his intelligent understanding of the scientific and industrial world about him, his broad human sympathies, and his ability to meet people of culture and refinement on their own plane.

In addition to this preliminary and general preparation the student needs to superimpose a technical preparation in educational theory, and a practical preparation in actual school practice. As early as the sophomore year, certainly not later than the junior, a brief introductory course on the place, purpose, and nature of public education, and an introduction to educational theory, can be taken with advantage. In the junior and senior years this should be followed with courses which give a good general introduction to the different fields of educational theory, history, administration, and practice. The graduate year should be devoted largely to advanced courses, and to the careful working-out of some special problem in educational theory or practice. What is desired is a good introduction to the different fields and to the literature of education, and some practice in the methods by which educational problems are solved.

The years of apprenticeship. All of this is merely preliminary, however. On top of this the candidate must now spend his apprenticeship and period of preliminary practice in his profession.¹ The three to five years which he now spends in teaching or in serving as a school principal ought to be years when he more than doubles the effectiveness of his general and professional collegiate preparation. If necessary to avoid falling into a rut, or getting a poor or one-sided experience, he should move about during this period.

¹ This period of apprenticeship, which we may assume to be spent in a school principalship, involves the mastery of most of the details of school organization and administration as applied to a single school. What constitutes this work forms the subject matter of another book in this series, on *The Principal and His School*.

If the salary does not seem large enough to cover both married life and study, he should for a time resolutely put marriage aside.

During these years he should save as much time as possible for careful reading and study along the lines of his future profession. Above all, during these years, he should gradually crystallize for himself a working educational philosophy, to guide him in his future work and to vitalize all his later procedure. He must seize intelligent hold of the conception that education stands for the higher evolution of both the individual and the race, and he must relegate to their proper place in the educational scheme all of the details of organization, administration, and school supervision. Without such a guiding conception administrative work soon becomes dull and fruitless routine, and the supervision of instruction a mechanical and uninteresting procedure.

Learning and working. He should now accumulate a good working library along the line of his major interests. He should keep closely in touch, too, with all advancements and important experiments in his field, and with what other workers elsewhere are doing. He should welcome new school tasks, making himself as professionally useful as possible, and taking a deep personal satisfaction in doing difficult things. He should give himself good practice in developing an ability to speak well and easily, and to write clearly and convincingly. He should mix some with practical men of affairs, from whom he can learn much that will be very useful to him later on. If the opportunity offers to join a discussion club, especially if composed of men older and more mature than himself, he should embrace the chance. He may even lead in the formation of such a club himself. He should read biography, and study and try to imitate the best traits of the successful men he has come to

know, both in literature and real life. Often some old doctor, or banker, or lawyer in the community will prove worthy of some close personal study.

He should, during this period, keep himself free from all practices, entanglements, clubs, and especially local social obligations, which are wasteful of time and energy and have in them little that is of permanent profit. He must, during these years, willingly accept work and burdens which lead toward his desired goal, and resolutely reject those which do not. He should know and remember that the habit of hard and faithful work is one that is established but slowly, that it requires close watching of one's pole star to establish it, and that it is not fully established in most men until they are somewhere near thirty or thirty-five years of age. He should also know and remember that it takes about thirty-five or forty years of hard and faithful work to get ready to do something really large in life.

Rightly used, a half-dozen years after graduation can be spent, with great future advantage, in subordinate positions in the practical field.

Dangerous pitfalls. It is during these years, however, that many a promising young man goes to pieces, so far as any large later usefulness in educational work is concerned. His college training gave him some feeling of mastery; he was trained there to do difficult things with some ease. When he goes to some smaller community he soon finds it unnecessary to work as he has done before. He also lacks the constant stimulus to sustained effort. Excepting a few lawyers and a few doctors, he is already one of the best educated men in the small city. His position, perhaps a principalship, gives him at once a special standing in the community. The people naturally look up to him as a man of more than ordinary training and importance. On the streets the men call him "Professor," and pretty grade teachers and

women with marriageable daughters seek him out, and flatter his vanity. His daily work in superintending women and children, who usually accept his pronouncements as law, perhaps gives him an added importance in his own eyes. The presidency of societies or clubs adds further to his local importance.

He soon finds, when he speaks to mothers' meetings and at church affairs, and often even to fellow teachers, that he does not need to think carefully or to have anything of real value to say. He begins to feel his local importance; he begins to take life easily at least twenty years before he has earned the right; he ceases to read and study the problems of his work; he falls in with the local social life; and he gradually loses sight of the more distant goal he once set out to reach. Spoiled by too easy, too small, and too early successes, in a decade or less his possible usefulness for large work elsewhere has about reached the vanishing point.

Personal qualities necessary. While good training and experience are of fundamental importance to the man who wishes to prepare for educational leadership, certain personal qualities must be added to both if any large success is to be achieved. The man who would be a superintendent of schools — the educational leader of a city — must be clean, both in person and mind; he must be temperate, both in speech and act; he must be honest and square, and able to look men straight in the eye; and he must be possessed of a high sense of personal honor. He needs a good time-sense to enable him to save time and to transact business with dispatch, and a good sense of proportion to enable him to see things in their proper place and relationship. He must have the manners and courtesy of a gentleman, without being flabby or weak. He must not be affected by a desire to stand in the community limelight, or to talk unnecessarily about his own accomplishments. He must avoid oracular-

ism, the solemnity and dignity of an owl, and the not uncommon tendency to lay down the law. A good sense of humor will be found a means of saving grace here, and will many times keep him from taking himself too seriously.

He must be alert, and able to get things done. This demands a good understanding of common human nature, some personal force, and some genuine political skill. He must know when and how to speak, but especially when and how to keep silent; when to answer some local attack — briefly, courteously, and with facts, and when to ignore the attack and keep still. He must know when and how to take the public into his confidence, and when not to tell what he desires or intends to do. He must know how to accept success without vainglory, and defeat without being embittered. He must keep a level head, so as not to be carried away by some new community enthusiasm, by some clever political trick, or by the great discovery of some wild-eyed reformer. He must, by all means, avoid developing a “grouch” over the situation which confronts him, for a man with that attitude of mind never inspires confidence, and is always relatively ineffective.

The qualities of leadership. He must learn to lead by reason of his larger knowledge and his contagious enthusiasm, rather than to drive by reason of his superior power. The powers and prerogatives which are guaranteed him by law he must know how to use wisely, and he should be able to win new powers and prerogatives from the board largely by reason of his ability to use them well. He must constantly remember that he represents the whole community and not any part or fraction of it, and he must deal equal justice to all. As the representative of the whole community he will be wise not to ally himself at all closely with any faction, or division, or party in it.

He must, out of his larger knowledge, see clearly what are

the attainable goals of the school system, and how best and how fast to attempt to reach them. From his larger knowledge, too, he must frequently reach up out of the routine of school supervision and executive duties into the higher levels of educational statesmanship. As a statesman, too, he must know how to take advantage of time and opportunity to carry his educational policy into effect.

By conferences, public and private, with leading citizens; by talks to parents at meetings at the schools; by taking the leaders among the teachers into his confidence; by dealing frankly and honestly with the press and the public; by his own written and spoken word, especially in his annual printed reports, and by inciting others to write and speak; and by tact and diplomacy in dealing with the members of his board, he must try to develop such a public opinion that the recommendations which he makes will go through without serious opposition, and be readily accepted by the people of the community. He must remember, though, that Rome was not built in a day; that it takes a long period of education to accomplish any really fundamental reform; and that it is usually not necessary to rush important matters to an immediate consideration.

It is now that the value of the long years of careful preparation becomes apparent. It is often said that only the man who is master of his calling, who overruns its mere outlines and knows more about the details of his work than any one else with whom he must work, is safe. Out of his large knowledge of the details and processes of school work, gained in the years of apprenticeship in his calling, and out of the guiding educational philosophy which he has slowly built up for himself, he can see ends among the means and hope amid the discouragements, and be able to steer such a course amid the obstacles and trials and misunderstandings of city school control as will bring a well-thought-out educa-

tional policy slowly but surely into reality. To such a man larger and larger opportunities keep constantly opening up ahead.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is the statement that the superintendent of city schools is potentially, if not actually, the most important officer in the employ of the people of a municipality, one that can be defended? Illustrate it.
2. Illustrate the statement that around the superintendent the schools revolve, and it is he who makes or mars the system.
3. Are the ages at which important superintendencies may be expected materially different from the age at which a lawyer, doctor, or engineer begins to achieve large success in his profession?
4. Why are breadth of knowledge, human sympathy, and gentlemanly instincts so important in a superintendent of schools?
5. Would you say that a good working educational philosophy is a foundation stone for successful administrative work? Illustrate. Why is administrative work likely soon to become dull and fruitless routine without such? Illustrate.
6. During the principalship or practical-training period, would you advise a young man: (a) To join an Elks lodge or other fraternal order? (b) To accept the presidency of a current-events club? (c) To accept the secretaryship of a local historical society? Why?
7. What would be a good rule for a young man to make regarding speaking in public?
8. What is the importance to an executive of (a) a good time-sense? (b) a good sense of proportion? (c) a good sense of humor?
9. Illustrate what you understand to be meant by the statement that a superintendent must be clean, both in person and in mind.
10. Illustrate what you understand to be meant by the statement that the superintendent represents the whole community, and hence should not ally himself at all closely with any faction or division or party in it.
11. What do you understand to be meant by educational statesmanship? Illustrate.

12. Compare the concentration of purpose called for on the part of one who would succeed as a superintendent of schools, and as a lawyer, doctor, or business man.

PROBLEM

1. A superintendent of schools is paid \$4500, and a mayor \$2500. The superintendent begins to dabble in real estate, and the mayor charges him with neglect of duty and not giving the community the services they pay for. The superintendent retorts that the mayor is envious of his larger salary, and that as an American citizen he has a right to do as he pleases. Has he, has he answered the mayor, and what are the equities in the case?

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CHAPTER XV

FOURFOLD NATURE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S WORK

Four types of service. In some of our cities the superintendent began largely as a teacher and a leader of teachers, and such duties continue to be a more or less important part of his work. In other cities, and most commonly, he began as the executive officer of the board of education, and such in some places he still remains. A later development, but without dropping these earlier functions, has been his evolution from a teacher and an executive into an organizer of educational policy and a director for the schools. Still more recently he has become more or less a general servant for the whole community.

All four of these phases of the superintendent's work exist in every city, large or small, though in somewhat differing proportions in different cities. Under the first we speak of him as a supervisor, under the second as an executive and an administrator, under the third as an organizer and a formulator and director of an educational policy, and under the fourth as a community leader.

The smaller the school system the more the duties of a supervisor and leader of teachers are prominent, yet even in a small city school system a superintendent should have before him a clearly defined educational policy for the community, which he works slowly to bring into realization. As the school system grows, or as the superintendent goes to larger cities to work, the executive functions are likely to crowd in upon him and absorb much of his time. These are so easy to take up and so hard to drop that he must always

watch that mere executive duties do not monopolize too large a share of his time and energy. In the larger school systems the supervisory aspects of his work and the details of administration pass largely to subordinates, while the larger problems of organization, administration, educational policy, and community service come to absorb most of the superintendent's time and effort.

Time for the larger problems. Often the larger success of a superintendent will lie in his not trying to do too much of any one thing. In a general way it may be said that a superintendent is worth most to a city when he keeps himself most free from detail work or routine service of any kind, and saves his time and energy for thinking and advising on the larger problems of the organization and administration of the schools. The modern superintendent must be more than a teacher of teachers, and more than merely the executive officer of the board of education. He must be a man of affairs, possessed of good common and business sense, and good at getting work out of other people, but keeping himself as free as possible from routine service so as to have time to observe, to study, to think, to plan, to advise, to guide, and to lead. Large knowledge, broad sympathies, a clearly conceived educational policy, patience, perseverance, foresight, sound judgment, good perspective, and executive power are the qualities now in demand in any city where the problems are large enough to demand the full time of a superintendent of schools. To keep free time for this larger thinking is one of the marks of professional grasp and of executive skill.

Loss of balance and perspective. To keep this balance in his work and perspective on his problems seems to be one of the greatest difficulties superintendents have to contend with. On all sides one sees superintendents who have lost all balance in their work, and who, as a result, do much less

thinking on the larger problems of the schools than they should.

Superintendent A, for example, spends so much time on his mail and on school statistics that he really gets little else done; Superintendent B is so occupied with bills and supplies, and the general routine work of a business clerk, that he can scarcely find time to think; Superintendent C has become virtually a superintendent of buildings, and the educational aspect of his school system has been lost sight of; Superintendent D is so much a teacher of teachers that he has taken over many of the functions of the school principals, and neglects the board and its problems, with the result that they run the schools and he has but little authority in any matter; Superintendent E spends so much time on the board, the public, and the politicians that he is seldom seen in the schools; Superintendent F is primarily a "joiner" and community organizer, and only incidentally a school superintendent; while Superintendent G has become a mere clerk for the board of education, running its errands and executing its decrees, and has lost sight both of his teachers and of the larger problems of the community which supports the schools.

Any such one-sided development of a superintendent of schools deprives the city employing him of the largest services; inevitably results in an inferior grade of educational work, and a lowered tone in the whole school system; and must ultimately result in a change in superintendent for the best interests of the community concerned. Between the four main aspects of his work the superintendent of schools must strive to preserve a proper balance. At times he must be a supervisor, or a teacher of teachers; at other times he must be an executive of the board of education; at still other times he must be an organizer and investigator and leader; and from time to time he must tempo-

rarily lay his school-work aside and become a community servant.

Let us now consider this fourfold nature of the superintendent's work, doing so, in part, in the reverse of the order of development.

1. *The superintendent as an organizer*

One of the first duties of a new superintendent should be to make, as it were, a hasty mental survey of the schools and the community he is to serve, to discover their peculiar educational needs, and to see how fully the school system in existence ministers to these needs. Out of such a survey, and out of his knowledge and experience, he must then plan a more or less definite educational policy to be followed in the administration and development of the schools. The details of this policy he may find it wise to keep to himself, and he may need to change it from time to time.

A policy for development. Such a policy of development may include many things — the school plant, the courses of study, new types of schools or instruction to be provided, the classification of pupils, textbooks, apparatus and supplies, curriculum reorganization, the work of teachers or principals, the selection and pay of staff, playgrounds, public-school extension, and the general educational policy to be pursued in the administration of the school system. In all such matters the superintendent should take the initiative, and he must use his best judgment as to what points to press and what ones to hold in abeyance for more propitious days.

He will be wise, too, if he unfolds the details of his policy to his board and to the people only about as rapidly as it can be comprehended and approved. For many of his more important ideas and plans a period of education of both his board and the community must be expected and provided for, and the more carefully this is done the less will be the

friction occasioned when the proposal is made or the plan carried into effect. To neglect this important part of the process may result in the defeat of many meritorious and progressive proposals. Merely to think out what is needed and then send a written communication to the board requesting such a measure often shows relatively poor organizing skill in important matters, and is very likely to result in a refusal to grant the request. Persistence in such a course is likely to develop a habit on the part of the board of refusing the superintendent's requests, and such a habit is not good either for the authority of the superintendent or for the welfare of the schools under his control.

Educating a board. The writer once asked a superintendent who had held his position for nearly a quarter of a century, and who was noted for his ability to carry his board of education with him, what was the secret of his fine control. His answer can best be understood by reference to the following sketch, which he drew on a piece of paper as he answered:

I spend much time [said he] in familiarizing my board with the needs of the schools, and the reasons for the recommendations I desire to make. Sometimes this is done by taking board members with me for a day in the schools, sometimes it is done over a dinner table, and sometimes it is done by a quiet personal talk at their places of business or at my office. Members are thus made cognizant of the needs of the schools and of the reasons for action before I make a formal recommendation to the board as a body. Through my annual printed reports, too, I try to educate both the board and the people, so that new measures, when approved, do not seem so very new to the community.

Let us assume now [he continued] that the general level of my board of education, in its conception of what the school system should do and be, is represented by the level A. My conception at this same time is represented by the level H.

Now, if I asked them to move at once up to my level, they not only would not do it, but it might awaken suspicions in their minds as to the soundness of my judgment and as to where I was leading them.

I accordingly begin a process of education, at first to get them to move to the level B, but plainly tell them that, if they do, they must be prepared to move almost at once to C, which follows as a natural corollary of the move to B. I also tell them plainly that it will cost about so much, and show them that our finances will afford it. The board considers the proposal reasonable and proper, and before long approves of my recommendation in the matter.

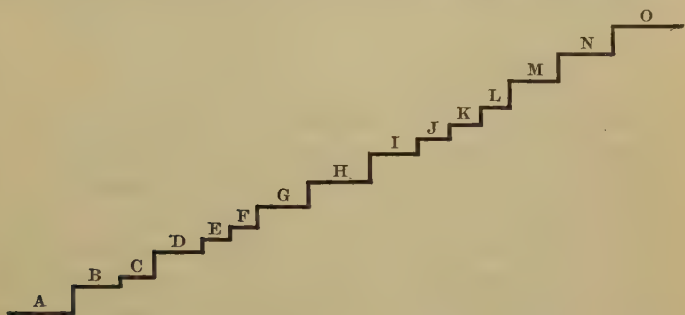


FIG. 18. ILLUSTRATING THE PROCESS OF EDUCATING A SCHOOL BOARD

Not only do they approve of it but, thoroughly understanding it, they defend it for me before the public, if defense should become necessary.

I now let them alone for a while, because the step to the next level, D, is something of an advance, and requires a reasonably long period of education. Still more, as E and F follow as natural corollaries after D, I really have to educate them up nearly to F before proposing D. In course of time, however, I get D, together with E and F.

About this time an election comes along, and half my board is new. The general average conception of the board is now back at D or C. Some, even, do not understand up to A. This is of course no time to propose new things, so the older members of my board and I start in on a process of educating the new ones up to the average level we had attained before they came among us. In time, however, they come to understand, the level F is restored once more, and it soon seems possible to make the short advance to G. A little later, seeing that this was accepted by the people in good spirit, we make the next step to H.

This whole process from A to H may have taken a number of years — say three, or four, or five — but now my ideas as to what the schools ought to do and to be have advanced to O, and I now see the need of more education and larger leadership. And so the process goes on and on, and will continue to go on through all time.

Importance of such service. It is by means of such careful work as this that the superintendent must show his skill as an organizer and director of the educational affairs of a city.¹ It is primarily the business of a superintendent to think and to propose, and primarily the business of a board to sit in judgment on his proposals. A wise superintendent will welcome and value the honest criticism of the broad-minded members of the board with which he is associated. These men see the proposal much as the community will see it, and often from quite a different angle from that at which the superintendent views it. A board can be of real service here in pointing out errors in policies and mistakes in judgment, and if the superintendent can answer their objections and thoroughly convince them of the desirability and feasibility of what he proposes, he has secured able advocates when it comes to dealing with the public later on.

Such work requires time, and the results are often discouragingly slow in coming, but it is fruitful service when dealing with the representatives of the public. It is in such work that a superintendent of schools often renders his most useful service to a community, and the importance of elimi-

¹ "As chief administrator of the system, the superintendent has a policy, or a general plan of administration. There is something to be accomplished; there must be careful, well-formulated plans for its accomplishment. These are not simply present-tense plans but rather a policy which looks far into the future, regardless of the short tenure of his contact. He must plan as though for a life-tenure; it is only by means of such plans that he can avoid time service. He has in his mind's eye the growth and development of five years, of ten years, of substantial progress; an ideal, if you please, toward which he strives; an ideal which year by year is to become school life and school atmosphere." (Superintendent M. G. Clark, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1913, p. 304.)

nating routine work and of keeping time free for observing and thinking can hardly be overemphasized in speaking to young men about to go into the work. If the superintendent is to render valuable service as an organizer and director for a school system, he must develop and slowly carry out a thoroughly sound and constructive policy for the improvement of educational conditions in the community he serves.

2. The superintendent as an administrator

As the executive officer of the board of education and the chief executive of the school system, the superintendent plays a somewhat different rôle. Both by the law and by the rules and regulations of the board he has little authority, except in matters in which the board has seen fit to delegate authority to him, yet he will not be of much force as a superintendent unless he can come to exercise rather large powers.¹

Proper personal and official relations. The relations of the superintendent with the board and its committees call for alertness, diplomacy, respect for authority, good judgment, practical business sense, frankness combined with courtesy, and courage and conviction at times when courage

¹ "The superintendent is the executive agent of the school committee, chosen to see that their decisions are carried out and that the school machine runs smoothly and effectively; but, if he is worthy of confidence, he will find his greatest opportunity in guiding by his advice the counsels of the school committee. This influence on the school policy of a community is what makes him an important official and differentiates him from a mere clerk. He should not be officious, neither should he be afraid to give his opinion; he should not attempt to overawe his employers, but he should realize that they expect him to advocate the best things. He should keep the committee informed on all matters, realizing that the more complete his influence the greater will be the power lodged in him. A school committee will usually allow a worthy superintendent to do almost anything he wishes, provided he first asks their permission." (C. A. Brodeur, p. 558 [see references].)

and conviction are the proper characteristics to exhibit. At different times he will be director, advisor, petitioner, and servitor. He will obtain little power for any length of time by driving, nor will he obtain much if any power by sitting still and looking down his nose. The public admires courage and firmness, when the grounds for such are good, but even more it dislikes mere aggressiveness and an arbitrary assumption of authority. Between these two extremes, sometimes near to one and sometimes near to the other, the superintendent must steer his course.¹ The danger of the young man is overaggressiveness; the danger of the old man is passive acceptance.

In his relations with his board as its executive officer he must avoid overzeal and personal feeling in the matter of his recommendations. He should familiarize the members with the needs of the schools and the reasons for his recommendations, and he may very properly offer objections to what members propose to do, but he would better see his recommendations turned down than to set up combinations to carry them through. Still less should he lobby to elect or defeat members, or to carry or defeat committee reports. In all such matters he will do well to stand on the wisdom of his recommendations and the honesty of his purposes, and, if necessary, accept defeat. Perhaps, after all, he is not all-wise, and the judgment of his board may be better than his.

¹ Superintendent Blodgett (see references) gives seven rules for the guidance of a superintendent in dealing with situations, as follows:

1. Know your exact relations to every feature of your work.
2. Get close to the heart of every situation.
3. Take a tenable position on all debatable questions, and speak plainly without being pugnacious.
4. Be loyal to the decisions of those in authority.
5. Have fixed places of responsibility and have that responsibility met.
6. Magnify and dignify the office of school principal and supervisor.
7. With your full corps of workers establish relations founded on cordial frankness, plain speech, and sympathy.

In any case, he should refuse to accept opposition as personal, even though it may be so. Neither should he harbor grudges, or keep up fights after the time for fighting is past. Any man of business capacity cares little as to whether people agree with him on matters of policy or procedure, if they are honest and fair about it, so far as personal friendship is concerned. Often a superintendent may have a sincere admirer in some lawyer or doctor or banker on his board who may feel that he must oppose certain of the superintendent's plans. This is a common experience of managers in the business world, and there is no reason why superintendents of schools should be exceptions in such matters.¹

Mutual trust and confidence. In his relations with his board the superintendent should strive, by his acts, to develop a feeling of mutual trust and confidence. Usually this is not hard to do with any board which has the good of the schools at heart. Between the superintendent and his board it is important that there exist the most complete and satisfactory understanding. Such should exist from the first. Each should trust the other, and should counsel together on all important matters. The superintendent should watch carefully that no act of his shall tend to destroy this good understanding.

One important means by which the superintendent may establish such confidence is to show that he understands thoroughly the details of his work. He must be able to advise the board intelligently, and be willing to assume and to distribute responsibility. He must know intimately the de-

¹ "The difference between the attitude of the manager in private life and the manager of a school system, under such circumstances, is very pronounced. There are but few corporations or firms which would not instantly accept the resignation of a manager if he showed petulance or irritation, or if he gave the board its choice of alternatives — that is, Either pass my request or accept my resignation." (F. A. Fitzpatrick, in *Educational Review*, p. 250, October, 1899.)

tails of questions likely to come before his board, and be able to give simple reasons why things should or should not be done.

On many matters he must decide and act himself, and without bothering the board. On questions of policy he will need to consult his board carefully, but to be continually bringing up matters of detail for a ruling or a decision is an almost sure way to lose the confidence of a businesslike board. To say to a board, when his opinion is asked, that it can decide the matter as well as he can, or when questioned about the schools to reply that he does not know, and leave the board without information or to find out for itself, is shortsighted and foolish. Once train a board in this way and it will soon be deciding important matters and taking important action without consulting the superintendent at all.¹

Appealing to the community. If, as sometimes happens, a board does not have the best interests of the schools at heart, and the superintendent, after personal conferences and the use of all reasonable diplomacy, is unable to stop action clearly against the best interests of the schools, then he should remember that he represents the community, as well as the school board; that his authority with them in such matters is really joint; and that the people expect and have a right to know his individual opinion on important issues. In such cases he should not hesitate to present his point of view freely and positively, in open board meeting, and

¹ It may be said that a superintendent should never shirk any proper responsibility or decline any proper power which a board offers to give him, even though the matter be a very unimportant one, and one which the board members could decide as well as he. The assumption of power and responsibility, relieving members, and the using of such power and responsibility wisely and well, creates confidence and leads to larger and larger grants. The man who can and is willing to do things is the man who will find plenty of things to do.

should refuse to be smothered up in a secret session or by committee action. The stronger the confidence which the community has come to have in his good sense, honesty of purpose, fairness, and sound judgment, the heartier will be their support of him should he ever find it necessary to take such action.¹ His deep conviction as to what is best for the schools must guide him in such matters, but he must not sacrifice his independence or yield his written or unwritten rights on really fundamental questions of policy or procedure.

Relations with the community. One of the most important assets of a superintendent in the prosecution of any and all phases of his work is the confidence of the better elements of the community in his fairness, sound judgment, and professional knowledge. He should know his community and be able to feel its pulse and express its wants, and the community should know him and believe in his integrity and honesty of purpose. This contact, fortunately, he has many opportunities to establish, and the more important of these opportunities he should embrace.²

¹ "While theoretically the city superintendent is but the executive officer of the board of education, practically, wherever his lot is cast, he is the chief power. Boards of education often are composed of members who are actively and persistently engaged in other interests. They are not consulted, and ought not to be consulted, in the detailed management of the schools. It is seldom that difficulties occur in the superintendent's life that have their rise in the board of education. The board is but a reflex representative of the people; seldom independent or beyond the influence of public opinion, even when public opinion is rash and unreliable. It follows from this that the administration of a given superintendent depends little upon the board of education, but upon the character of the schools on the one side and the opinion of the people on the other." (J. M. Greenwood, in *Educational Review*, vol. 18, p. 375, November, 1899.)

² In addition to the few means mentioned here, the annual printed report covering the work of the schools should not be forgotten. Rightly used, the annual report can be made of very large importance in the education of a community. His community relationships, considered further on, also are of large potential importance.

As the head of the school system of the community he holds a position of particular local prominence, and his work as an administrator brings him into daily contact with parents and citizens. . . Every contact is an opportunity to leave a good impression, and to add something to the strength of his control of the schools. With perhaps seventy-five per cent of those whom he meets from day to day in his official capacity it will be their only meeting, so that it is important that the impression made as to his personality, education, tact, and good judgment be as favorable as possible. If well used, this daily contact may prove a source of much community strength; if not, it ultimately will prove his undoing.

So far as is possible every conference with a parent or a citizen, either at the superintendent's office or elsewhere, should add something to the community respect for the superintendent and the community belief in the system of public instruction which he represents. To this end the superintendent must not be arbitrary, impatient, unreasonable, personally aggrieved, or any of a number of other things which superintendents too frequently are and do. A pleasant word, a promise to investigate, absence of personal pique, consideration for the other's point of view, and a certain democratic simplicity and directness, frequently make friends of those who came only to complain.¹

The work of the schools, particularly the many little special occasions, also offers opportunities for the superintendent to add to the community's good opinion of their schools. A few well-chosen words, not too long, and not

¹ "The superintendent should be large enough in spirit to be above petty quarrels and jealousies, fair enough to work with others even when no personal gain is the result, sympathetic enough to see matters from the point of view of teachers, pupils, and parents, and democratic enough to recognize the just claims of all with whom he has to do." (C. A. Brodeur, p. 558 [see references].)

about "my policies" or "my ideas," but of a character designed to give the community a higher appreciation of the importance of what the teachers are doing and the work of the schools in the community, can be made of much value in developing community support for future educational policies. What the superintendent has to say must be simple, straightforward, constructive, and well expressed. To apologize to an audience for not being prepared, or to scold them for their shortcomings, are two things which should be studiously avoided. The conservatism and oft-times the ignorance of a community he must himself accept as perfectly natural, and without complaining about it. People are by nature conservative, and it is not only the duty but also the opportunity of the superintendent to educate them up to the larger needs of their schools.¹

3. *The superintendent as supervisor*

The third phase of the superintendent's work is that which brings him into close relations with special supervisors, principals, teachers, and pupils. All of the other types of work are in a sense preliminary to this third function, that of supervising and improving the instruction within the schools.

The task of supervision. Theoretically, at least, the supervisory function is vested in the superintendent of

¹ "A well-regulated school system, managed by professional educators, is always ahead of the community at large in both method and outlook. Now, unless school needs and school aims are understood by the people, a gulf widens between them which is finally bridged only by criticisms and protests signed 'taxpayer.' The superintendent should lend a hand to any undertaking which dignifies his office, or which seeks to establish points of contact between the schools and the public they serve. If there be parents' meetings, he had better attend; if there be mothers' clubs, he had better speak when asked; if the Sunday-School teachers wish an address, he had better give it; if some one asks the rather dubious question 'What do you do *anyway*?' he had better explain himself in simple, indisputable terms, so that mothers and fathers shall grow to feel that no community should be without him." (Alice E. Reynolds, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, p. 270.)

schools as the final responsible and professional authority in the school system. If the legally chosen representatives of the people provide him with proper assistance and adequate authority to institute and carry out supervisory policies, then the credit for a good system of school supervision, as well as the blame for a poor system, should rest with him. The great task of supervision is to improve the instruction within the school by making common the best practices of teachers anywhere, to inspire teachers to personal growth, and to bring to bear on the instructional problems of the school the best philosophy of the educative process. Expert school supervision accordingly calls for scholarly standards, based on sound theory and the best of contemporary experience. Every visit to a classroom, every professional meeting with teachers, every prescription of either the method or the material of instruction, every modification of physical conditions, and every regrouping of pupils should have improvement of instruction as the ultimate goal.

Except in the smaller cities, where the superintendent of schools can still keep in close personal touch with the work of all his teachers, this third phase of the superintendent's work can no longer be exercised, in any large measure, in person. As school systems grow larger and larger, the superintendent must, of necessity, delegate more and more of the work of school supervision to subordinates. The superintendent must now influence instruction by the control and direction of general policies, and by working through specially selected officers who now assist him, and in reality largely represent him, in that dealing with human factors at close range which is the essence of close and professional schoolroom supervision. To these professional assistants the superintendent now delegates authority to exercise the functions which he no longer finds it physically, and in details technically possible for him to exercise himself.

Three persons responsible. Except in the smaller cities, then, the work of schoolroom supervision is carried on by a combination of three types of persons — the superintendent and his immediate professional assistants, the principals of the different schools, and the special supervisors who look after certain phases of the instruction. Under the law, the superintendent of schools possesses supreme administrative and supervisory authority, and he represents the school board and the people in carrying out the supervisory function. The principals are the direct representatives of the superintendent in charge of particular schools, and are responsible to the superintendent for the instructional efficiency within their schools. The special supervisors are specialized staff experts who represent the superintendent in a limited and technical field within the school system.

Each of these three types of persons has a special contribution to make toward the improvement of the instructional efficiency of the schools. The superintendent's function is to exercise general control over school organization and the general policies relating to instruction, and to illuminate the policies and procedures decided upon by reason of his broader professional knowledge and his larger insight into educational needs. However large a school system may become, the superintendent must, in some way, reach down through all the complicated machinery of school organization and administration and vitalize the work of the teachers in the schools. His larger grasp of the problems should in some way find expression in the daily work of teachers and pupils if his highest mission as a superintendent is to be fulfilled. The principal, through his close personal contacts, intimate knowledge of the classroom work in his school, and his leadership within his special group, has the task of harmonizing the instruction with the growth needs of his children. The special supervisor represents special and often

rather technical knowledge and equipment relating to a special phase of the instruction, and should bring the best practices within and without the school system to the assistance of any teacher.

School supervision, then, in a small city is largely what the superintendent of schools makes it; in a large city it is the combined result of the work of superintendent, principals, and special supervisors, expressing itself through new curriculum content, improved teaching methods, and the professional viewpoint and growth of the teaching staff.

This phase of the superintendent's labors, however, so clearly belongs to his services as the head of the instructional work of the schools that further consideration of it is deferred to Chapter XVII.

4. The superintendent as a community leader

While the superintendent of a city school system has always stood out, when he was an efficient worker, as a man of importance in the community in which he labored, within recent years this aspect of his activities has been given an entirely new importance, due to the many and the far-reaching changes in the nature of city life which have taken place. As a result, a superintendent of city schools to-day often is called upon for so much community service that the work not infrequently becomes a serious drain on both his time and his strength.

Changes of two decades. In many cities to-day the superintendent of city schools is not only the best paid but also one of the most important of all city officials, and he is called on for community service to a degree commensurate with this importance. The better training of the present body of school superintendents, the better class of young men who have entered the work, the rise of luncheon and service clubs which have created new contacts, the organization of

numerous community agencies that call for leadership, the rapid development of city life, the great expansion of the school as an institution which has recently taken place, and the new business and financial relationships which have developed — these are the more important of the changes of the past two decades which have altered the position and magnified the importance of the position of superintendent of schools in an American city.

Whereas a quarter of a century ago a superintendent of schools might have belonged to one or two evening literary or discussion clubs and have taught a Sunday school, to-day, if he is an efficient organizer and executive, he is likely to be called on to belong to so many organizations and to be a member of so many committees that he is in serious danger of being unable to attend to his school duties properly. He must now exercise a wise discretion as to what to take up and what to let alone, he must depend on others for detailed service, and he must budget his time with care.

New contacts and new duties. To be a member of the Rotary or some similar service organization, to speak from time to time before all kinds of organizations and gatherings, to coöperate with and probably be a member of the Chamber of Commerce, to serve on the Community Chest organization and probably some year to direct its campaign for funds, to serve on city committees to welcome distinguished visitors or to celebrate important occasions and events, to preside at public meetings, to oversee and in a way direct school publicity, to organize campaigns for and put over school bond issues, to organize and explain and help carry a budget through the city council, to help numerous community undertakings by advising committees and standing sponsor for them, to coöperate with Parent-Teacher organizations and to speak to parents at school meetings — these are perhaps the more important of the newer services the

superintendent is likely to be called upon to render in that aspect of his work which places him as one of the important citizens and a leader in the life and development of the community in which he lives and works.¹ A knowledge of men and how to work with people, as well as of issues and problems, now becomes an important asset.

To have a luncheon engagement with some committee or group four or five days a week, similar evening engagements for two or three evenings a week, and a calendar dated up three or four weeks in advance, is not an unusual program for a city superintendent of schools in any medium-sized city. While the number of community duties and engagements will be fewer in the smaller cities, the nature of the community duties will be much the same. A serious danger now faced is that the superintendent, in the midst of the many and varied calls for community service which have recently arisen, may lose sight of his central duty and problem — the schools, and the teachers and children in them. More than ever does the office of city superintendent of schools now call for a good business organizer and administrator, larger office staff to attend to details, the ability to make sound decisions quickly, and that mastery of one's calling which almost alone ensures success and safety in a position of such varied and exacting duties.

Dangers faced by the superintendent. In carrying on his work, in its fourfold aspect, the superintendent of schools faces certain dangers, other than those so far pointed out.

He must not lose confidence in himself, for out of confidence in himself come almost all his other powers. Such

¹ "If the superintendent is not known outside of the schoolhouses, much of the influence he should exert in the community is lost. He ought to be a leader, or at least one of the leaders of thought in his community, and a maker of public opinion." (C. E. Gorton, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1900, p. 229.)

confidence, if it is of the right kind, comes largely from a sense of mastery of the details of his calling. The world always steps aside to let a man pass who knows where he is going, but it often crushes the man who does not know whither he is bound. He must not repose too much confidence in other people. To trust subordinates and friends wisely, but not too much, is something he must learn early. Sustained by the justice of his cause, and guided by an educational philosophy that gives point and direction to his administrative labors, he must not take as personal the criticisms, reverses, and even the humiliations of which he must expect and accept his full share. He must not underestimate to himself the value of his services, nor must he expect the people to appreciate fully what he is doing for them. A superintendent of schools works distinctly for the next generation; without becoming egotistical or autocratic, his own personal sense of the importance of his work must be his own greatest reward.

He must avoid, too, almost above all else, a low physical tone due to overwork, wasted energy, attending to too many details, fretting over conditions he cannot help, or other causes, for no executive can do his best work when he is in poor physical condition. His exercise, his food, his sleep, and his leisure he must guard carefully, for out of these, as it were, come his balance, his perspective, his insight, his reliability, and his reserve force for the emergencies of his daily work.

His wife, too, has an important part to play, as well. She, too, must stand by the ship, help him in his community activities, protect him from futile and wasteful social engagements, provide him with a home life that is expressive of peace and quiet and contented living, be interested in what he is doing, and encourage him to high endeavor. A superintendent who has a wife of this type has chances for

success that a superintendent with a wife of an opposite type does not have.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Explain how educational organization may evolve into educational statesmanship. Illustrate.
2. In what way does a clearly defined educational policy serve to transform the details of administration from routine to constructive service?
3. Illustrate how a superintendent may become so busy with administrative details that he may have no time left for real constructive service.
4. Why is a man who actually works less likely to be worth more?
5. Why should a superintendent not tell his plans too much in advance?
6. What should be a superintendent's relations with the local newspapers?
7. Should a superintendent take complaints and criticism as personal and feel hurt? Illustrate.
8. Illustrate your conception of the process of educating a board and a committee to understand the need of
 - (a) A class for the oral instruction of deaf children;
 - (b) A class for subnormal children;
 - (c) A class for supernormal children;
 - (d) The establishment of an intermediate school, to include the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, to be taught by the departmental plan, with special selected teachers; assuming that no such schools exist in your vicinity, and that the board and the people are unfamiliar with these educational ideas.
9. Illustrate the training of an office clerk to relieve the superintendent from details and give him time for other work.
10. Illustrate how a superintendent can utilize opportunities to educate the community in connection with school happenings and events. What kind of topics should he talk about?
11. Illustrate how a superintendent's daily contact with people may:
 - (a) Add strength to his position and control of the schools;
 - (b) Prove his ultimate undoing.

12. Distinguish between "feeling the community's pulse" for constructive work, and "keeping one's ear to the ground" to know what to do.
13. Illustrate, by concrete cases, the sentence, "At different times the superintendent will be director, advisor, petitioner, and servitor," in his relations with his board.
14. Explain the basis for the statement that the longer a superintendent has been in a position the more details he should settle without consulting his board. On what assumption is such a statement based?
15. Give three illustrations for each of the four main phases of a superintendent's activity, namely, as organizer, as administrator, as executive, and as community leader.
16. After six days of work for the schools and the community, should a superintendent refuse to teach a Sunday-School class on Sunday?
17. What kind of topics might a superintendent talk on, and what kind of a speech should he make, in addressing
 - (a) A P.T.A. meeting?
 - (b) A woman's club?
 - (c) A Sunday-School-teacher group?
 - (d) A Chamber-of-Commerce luncheon?
 - (e) A Rotary Club?
 - (f) A convention of county assessors?
18. As superintendent, you are asked to take charge of the Community Chest drive this year. For two weeks it will require most of your time, and for two weeks more a third to a half of your time. How can you afford to give so much time to the work?
19. Is a superintendent justified in asking that his board grant him expense money for membership in such civic clubs as the Rotary, Chamber of Commerce, etc., when other executives employed by corporations receive such expense? Suppose he does, and the board fears the public would not approve the grant.
20. Show the importance of a good sense of humor, good health, and "no nerves" in carrying a superintendent along amid his many duties.

PROBLEMS

1. For Fig. 18, make out a series of moves to correspond with the different letters, preserving the proportion and relative sequence of the steps as explained, such as might exist in the plans of a superintendent for the development of his school system.
2. Suppose that you are a city superintendent of schools, and that you are present at a meeting called to consider a proposal to build a new school. An objector, in the course of a talk, says that the superintendent is responsible for the proposition, is an unnecessary official, and says, in closing, that he would like to know "what he does, *anyway?*" How would you answer him?

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CHAPTER XVI

CITY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT ORGANIZATION

1. *The special city problem*

Size and distribution of cities. There were, in 1928, 2881 cities and towns of over 2500 inhabitants in the United States, which made statistical returns to the United States Commissioner of Education. A tabulation of these returns shows the following distribution of the cities as to size, together with the number of superintendents and assistant superintendents of schools for such, by groups, together with the number of special supervisors and school principals employed, the number of different schools maintained in each group of cities, and the totals for each of the items:

SIZE OF CITIES (Estimate for 1925)	NUMBER OF SUCH CITIES REPORTING	NUMBER OF SUPERVISORS EMPLOYED (Day schools only)		
		Superin- tendents and assistant superin- tendents	Supervisory principals and principals	Number of school build- ings main- tained
Over 100,000.....	68	282	7,484	6,391
30,000 to 100,000.....	186	254	3,936	3,782
10,000 to 30,000.....	517	548	3,970	5,167
2,500 to 10,000.....	2110	2098	5,596	9,901
	2881	3182	20,986	25,241

From the above table we see that the 2881 special-type large school districts which we know as city school districts — out of a total of somewhere between 250,000 and 300,000 school districts of all kinds in the United States — employed approximately an average of 8 supervisory officers of all

kinds for each city. These 2881 cities also employed 46 per cent of all the teachers in the public schools of the United States, and enrolled approximately 41 per cent of all the pupils enrolled in public day schools. The special character of the problems of organization and administration in the city school districts will be apparent from this statement. The 68 cities which in 1925 had over 100,000 inhabitants have an even more special character. Though constituting only about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the total number of cities, these 68 nevertheless employed over 35 per cent of the supervisory officers and 40 per cent of the teachers employed in the 2881 cities, and enrolled 45 per cent of the pupils enrolled in city public day schools.

The small city school system. It will be seen from the table just given, too, that nearly three fourths (73.3 per cent) of the cities of the United States had less than 10,000 inhabitants in 1925, and that 2627 of the 2881 (91.2 per cent) had less than 30,000 inhabitants. It is in these smaller and often rapidly growing cities that the problems of organization and administration have to be solved by the largest number of superintendents, and often under conditions which are far from ideal. It will be seen also that the superintendents in these smaller cities have to work with the least help, and must, of necessity, be superintendents of a somewhat general and undifferentiated type. All of the administrative problems that in a large city are divided among a number of supervisory officers, in so far as these problems touch a small city, must here be handled by the superintendent and the board of education acting almost alone. The board, in such cities, usually is in much more intimate touch with the schools than is the case in the larger cities, and in consequence attempts to handle many problems which in larger and better-organized cities are left to executive officers. The superintendent, too, usually is younger, less

experienced, and is supposed to be more of a teacher and a leader of teachers than is the case in the larger cities.

Still, all phases of the problems of organization and administration and supervision, in the course of time, come to the door of the superintendent of these smaller cities, and in many ways it requires as high a degree of professional and political skill to be a successful superintendent in a small city as in a large one. The chief difference lies in that the problems are smaller in scale, and that the people are not so critical if the superintendent is unprogressive or incompetent, while the demand for real educational statesmanship is much less prominent. The personal and political conditions, on the other hand, and the educational conservatism of the people may be much more marked and much more trying to a man who knows than in a larger city.

The comprehensive type of superintendent. Since almost every type of problem in organization, administration, and supervision will, in time, present itself to the superintendent in a smaller city for solution, he must of necessity be an all-round man, conversant with the different phases of his work, and able to do many things rapidly and well. Good general and professional training, and good experience in an elementary-school principalship, will prove of much value to a young school superintendent at such a time.

At one time he must be an organizer and planner for the development of the system, often looking into the future beyond the vision of the teachers, the board, or the people. At another time he must be an expert on school organization, bringing to teachers, principals, the board, and the people the best experience of other cities. At another time he must be an expert on the making and administration of a course of study, slowly educating those associated with him up to his larger point of view. At another time he must be an expert investigator and tester of the work of the schools, and the

progress of the pupils therein. At another time he must be an expert on the details of schoolhouse construction, and on the proper care and maintenance of the school plant. At another time he must be an expert on playgrounds and playground work. At another time he must be the real authority back of the attendance officer, administering the law, and protecting the educational rights of the children. At another time he must be protecting these same rights in the employment, dismissal, or safeguarding from injustice of teachers. At another time he is again voicing the need of the children, or protecting them along the line of health control. At another time he is a business man, looking after purchases, budgets, and the larger problems of educational finance. At another time he is a petitioner before the board asking for some improvement in conditions, some new grant of power, or some change in ruling, and following this he is the servant of the board, seeing that its decisions are carried out. At another time he is an administrator, looking after the hundred and one little details of daily school administration — dictating letters, meeting people, smoothing out difficulties, eliminating friction, and adding to the confidence of the people in their schools. At other times he is a supervisor of teachers, directing them, inspiring them to larger service, and extending helpful supervision to them. At still other times he is a community servant, meeting distinguished visitors, making addresses, serving on committees, and doing community chores that the community have asked him to do for them.

Dangers of such a position. Such a superintendent, if he is a real superintendent, lives a busy life, and the constant danger he faces, aside from exhaustion from overwork or worry, is that of losing his balance and perspective amid the many problems of his work. To do so means to become a one-sided superintendent — an office clerk, a purchasing

and business agent, a building superintendent, an office administrator, or merely a supervisor of instruction. Of all the one-sided developments, that of becoming a mere supervisor of instruction is the least dangerous, because in a small city this is the most important of all his services.

It is easy in a small city school system, where there is little professional competition and the community standards for success are low, to develop into an office man, picking up easy routine work and neglecting more important functions, and later become a political superintendent, with ultimate loss of position ahead. A board of education and a community have a right to demand that their superintendent shall be a student of educational administration and problems, and that he shall keep himself informed as to progress elsewhere;¹ and the superintendent, in turn, has a right to demand of his board enough freedom from routine and other service to enable him to have some free time for reading, study, and visitation, that he may keep abreast of progress in theory and practice.²

¹ A new superintendent in a city of about 20,000 inhabitants was asked by the board of education if he desired to suggest any changes in their printed rules and regulations. Among a number of suggestions he offered the following, which was heartily approved by the board:

"Sec. 23. The superintendent of schools shall be expected to be a student of educational theory and practice, and shall be expected to acquaint himself with progress being made elsewhere, in order that the board of education and the teachers in the schools may be advised as to the best methods and plans for improving the education of the children in the schools. To this end the superintendent shall be permitted, in his discretion, to set aside time for personal study, and may also, in his discretion, absent himself from the city for not to exceed three days at any one time for the purpose of observing school organization and instruction in other cities."

² A number of our cities now pay a part or all of the expenses of their superintendent, in addition to giving him leave of absence for six weeks on full pay, for attendance at summer sessions of the larger universities. This is a good investment for a city to make; the gain in knowledge, interest, and professional enthusiasm on the part of the superintendent more than com-

2. *Type forms of educational organization*

To carry on the educational and business work of a school system of any size requires some form of educational and business organization, by means of which responsibility is fixed and authority is delegated. This organization usually is found in what are known as the *Rules and Regulations* of the board of education, but for graphic display an organization chart usually is drawn up. We shall devote the balance of this chapter to a presentation of what are considered sound principles in school department organization, using organization charts to show the placing of responsibility and authority, and showing types of organization for cities of various sizes.

Organization in a small city. The scheme of organization in a small city is exceedingly simple. The people, under the provisions of the state law, elect the school board as their representatives, and the school board and its committees virtually conduct the schools. The power and the authority which a superintendent has legally, under most of our present-day laws, usually is very small. By knowing his work, and by the exercise of tact, courtesy, and good judgment, a superintendent, however, often can come to exercise, usually by tacit consent, rather large powers in the organization and administration of the schools. When he leaves, his successor probably will have to prove himself and to establish a similar degree of confidence in his ability and good judgment before he can succeed to the powers exercised by the former man. A young man should expect to do this; it is good training for him to do it.

The place of the superintendent in the scheme. The proper scheme of organization in a small city is represented
pensates for the small extra outlay. Many cities also pay the expenses of the superintendent to attend the annual meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A.

by Figure 19. Acting in conjunction with the board and its committees, the superintendent manages and directs the schools. He acts as the secretary and executive officer of

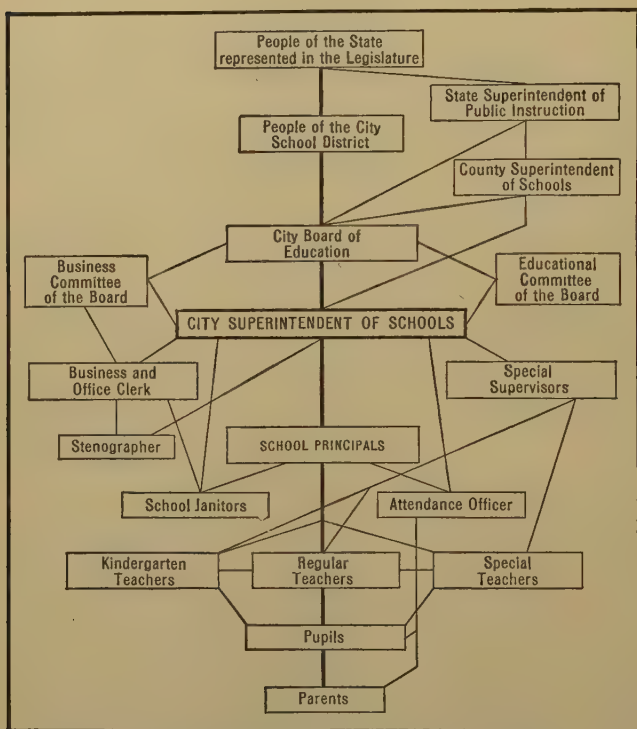


FIG. 19. PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A SMALL CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND SHOWING PROPER RELATIONSHIPS

This plan would apply to a city school system employing from about 40 to 100 teachers.

the board of education, executes its decisions, acts as its representative before the schools and the people of the community and the State, and keeps the board and the people of

the community informed as to needs and conditions. Under a proper form of organization, as shown by the lines, the board and its committees act only through him, and members of the school department communicate officially with members of the board only through his office.

The following may be taken to represent the personnel and scope of the school system shown in Figure 19:

INSTRUCTIONAL EMPLOYEES	SCOPE OF SYSTEM
1 superintendent of schools.	1 high school.
1 supervisor of primary work.	2 medium-sized elementary schools with a kindergarten in each.
1 supervisor of music.	2 smaller elementary schools.
1 supervisor of handwriting.	1 manual-training center.
1 high-school principal.	1 cooking-center, in one of the larger buildings.
4 elementary-school principals.	1 ungraded room, in one of the larger buildings.
18 high-school teachers.	
44 elementary-school teachers.	
4 kindergarten teachers.	
2 manual-training teachers.	
2 cooking teachers.	
1 ungraded-room teacher.	
1 school nurse.	
81	
	OFFICE FORCE
	1 office and business clerk.
	1 attendance officer.
	2 stenographers.
	4

His office force consists of a good business and office clerk, and two stenographers. The clerk looks after office matters in his absence, makes purchases, fills requisitions, checks up bills, distributes books and supplies to the schools, attends to most of the routine correspondence, takes charge of the minutes, and notifies all parties concerned of the official actions of the board of education. The stenographers, in addition to handling the official mail, mimeograph circulars, make up reports, file documents, answer the telephone, see people who call, and do necessary messenger service.

With his school principals and the three special supervisors, the superintendent must supervise the work of the schools. In a city system of fifty to one hundred teachers

this will naturally form a very important part of his services, and in such a system he should strive to become an expert at such work. He must look after the proper education and inspiration of his principals and teachers, the coördination of the work of the schools, the administration of the courses of study, the educational development of the school system, the work of special teachers, and the work of the attendance officer. While doing this he must not lose sight of the other aspects of his work and the other problems of his schools.

Expansion as the city grows. As the city supervised grows in size, the school system expands, more and more teachers are employed, and new schools and new types of schools are organized, the administrative organization must, of necessity, be changed and expanded to enable the board and the superintendent to handle properly the work of the larger school system. Committee action should now decrease in amount and in importance, the dependence on executive officers should increase, and the delegated authority of the superintendent and of the heads of the large administrative departments should be materially increased. With the increase of the educational and business work, executive officers should replace committees, and the latter should tend to disappear altogether. In all medium-sized and large cities, standing committees of the board of education should be prohibited by law, as such serve chiefly to obstruct the proper work of the board's executive officers. All that the usual standing committees now do could be done better and done more expeditiously by the regularly employed executive officers of the board. It will be noticed that in Figures 20 and 21 standing committees of the board are not to be found at all.

The following may be taken to represent the personnel and scope of the school system shown in Figure 20:

INSTRUCTIONAL EMPLOYEES

- 1 superintendent of schools.
- 1 director of research.
- 1 assistant superintendent.
- 1 supervisor of primary work.
(Virtually an assistant superintendent of schools.)
- 1 health supervisor.
- 5 special supervisors. (Drawing, music and expression, constructional activities, home-life activities, and play activities.)
- 1 high-school principal.
- 1 junior-high-school principal.
- 6 elementary-school principals, who do not teach.
- 1 elementary-school principal, who teaches.
- 35 high-school teachers.
- 50 junior-high-school teachers.
- 85 elementary-school teachers.
- 7 kindergarten teachers.
- 3 manual-training teachers.
- 3 cooking teachers.
- 3 school nurses.
- 2 visiting teachers.
- 3 playground teachers.
- 6 ungraded-room teachers.
- 2 parental-school teachers.
- 1 oral-deaf teacher.
- 6 vocational-school teachers.

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SCOPE OF SYSTEM

- 1 high school.
- 2 junior high schools.
- 4 large elementary schools.
- 2 medium-sized elementary schools.
- 1 small elementary school.
- 7 kindergarten classes.
- 2 manual training, cooking, and sewing buildings, in connection with the junior high schools and the high school.
- 6 ungraded rooms, one in connection with each larger elementary-school building.
- 1 class for the oral instruction of the deaf.
- 1 parental school.
- 1 day vocational school.

OFFICE FORCE

- 1 secretary.
- 1 clerk and purchasing agent.
- 2 attendance officers.
- 1 storekeeper.
- 1 bookkeeper.
- 5 stenographers and clerks.
- 1 superintendent of buildings and grounds.
- 1 delivery boy.
- 12 janitors
- 25

Architects and engineers employed as needed.

The business and office clerk has by now gradually evolved into a clerk and purchasing agent on the one hand and a superintendent of buildings and grounds on the other, and these two are given oversight not only of all business and clerical matters previously attended to, but also oversight of the janitors, architects, contractors, engineers, plumbers, and workmen of various types employed about the school plant. The clerk and purchasing agent also will keep all

accounts and attend to all financial details for the school district. The office force will increase, and the superintendent now will need an intelligent, dependable stenogra-

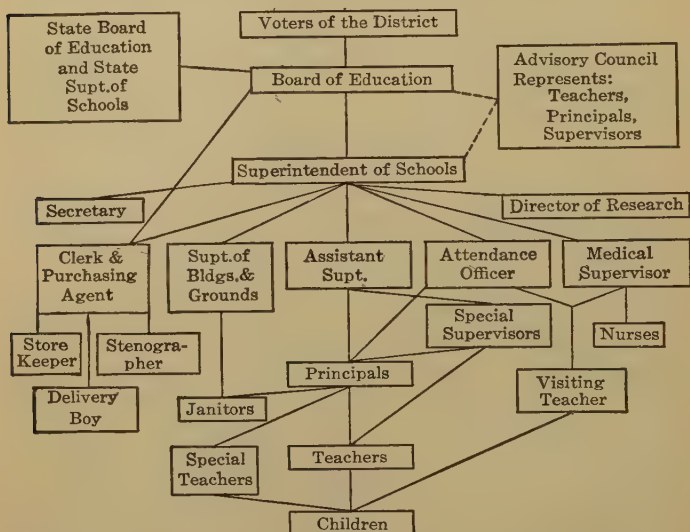


FIG. 20. PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A MEDIUM-SIZED CITY, AND SHOWING PROPER RELATIONSHIPS

This plan would apply to a city school system employing from about 150 to 350 teachers.

pher and office secretary to attend to his mail, see his callers, take charge of his office during his absence, and attend to many of the details of his work.

On the educational side the number of special supervisors will increase, the attendance department will become better organized and a parental school will be added, ungraded room and visiting teachers will be employed, and a health supervisor and a number of school nurses will be added to the special corps. The number of school buildings will increase, and some of the principalships will evolve into quite re-

sponsible positions. Certain special-type schools, such as a day school for the oral instruction of the deaf, classes for over-age and backward children, and perhaps a vocational day or evening school, will be added. A central junior-high school will be organized, to cover the work of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, and organized on the departmental rather than on the grade-room plan, and the schools will be reorganized on the 6-3-3 plan.

Proper administrative organization for the larger city. The business and educational organization will now become more complicated. The plan, properly carried out, is represented by the drawing (Figure 20) on page 268. As before, the lines and position indicate the direction of authority, and the central position of the superintendent of schools for the city again will be apparent.

A man of larger grasp now will be required. The old superintendent, who has grown up with the system, unless he has more than kept pace with it, may need to be superseded by some one better able to handle the larger educational problems. The man in command now must be one who can quickly sort out essentials from non-essentials, and one who can think and act quickly and relatively accurately. He must be able to exercise a supervisory oversight over many things, without getting lost in the details of any one matter. More than before it is the business of the superintendent to think and to plan, and, even more than before, must he know what ought to be done and be able to state clearly and convincingly the reasons for his proposals.

More real leadership is now required than in the smaller school system. A larger vision, too, is now demanded. There will still be plenty of routine service to be looked after, but, to a degree, routine previously handled must now be passed down to subordinates, the superintendent merely exercising supervisory oversight to see that the routine is

properly looked after, while he applies his energy and best thinking to the larger problems of educational leadership which more and more confront him as the community grows.

Guaranteed powers. Whether the school system is small, as in a city of 5000 inhabitants, employing approximately 40 teachers; or medium-sized, as in a city of 20,000 inhabitants, employing from 125 to 150 teachers; or a still larger city of 50,000 population, employing from 275 to 350 teachers, the rights, duties, and privileges which should be attached to the office of city superintendent of schools should be approximately the same. These should include the following:

1. The guaranteed right to attend any meeting of the board of education, or any committee thereof, except when his own tenure or salary is under consideration, with the right to speak on any question, but without a vote. This gives the superintendent a legal right to be present whenever school matters of any kind are being considered, and the legal right to be heard. His good judgment now must guide him as to how much and how often to speak, remembering that it is very easy to talk too much, and that a superintendent who does so will soon make himself obnoxious and defeat his own ends.
2. The board should be primarily a legislative body, and the superintendent its recognized executive officer. The board should legislate, and the superintendent should execute. This means that the board should act through him, or through others, nominally at least, under his oversight and control, and not independent of him. To the end that this be the case, such a division of functions should be specified in the rules and regulations of the board, or better still in the school laws of the State.

Of course, there will be superintendents who are failures as executives, and among such the mortality, under such a law, naturally would increase, but on the other hand superintendents who know how to handle executive work

will be enabled to carry forward their executive functions, without continually struggling with boards and board members to obtain or retain what should be the superintendent's natural powers and duties.

3. The superintendent, in addition to being the chief executive officer of the board, with supervisory oversight of all departments, also should be the recognized head of the educational department of the school system. As such, he should be given full charge of the making and changing of the courses of study, of the supervision of the instruction in the schools, the promotion and assignment of pupils, and of the selection of books and apparatus for carrying on such instruction, the board being asked to approve only when new types of instruction are to be added, new expenditures are involved, or new contracts need to be signed. In no case should the board take any action on such matters except on the prior recommendation of the superintendent of schools.
4. The initiative in all matters relating to the appointment, assignment, transfer, promotion, suspension, or dismissal of teachers, principals, or special supervisors should rest with the superintendent of schools, the board approving or disapproving of his recommendations, but without the power of substituting other names or initiating new appointments.
5. In the appointment, assignment, transfer, or dismissal of janitors, the superintendent should have a similar authority, acting, in the larger school systems, in conjunction with the superintendent of buildings and grounds, under whose supervision the janitors, in certain aspects of their work, may be in particular assigned.
6. In the matter of reports required, records to be kept, and blank forms to be used, the power of initiative should in general rest with the superintendent, but with power resting with the board to request additional information as to the work of the schools.
7. The superintendent, on his own initiative, should be given the right to order expenditures for the schools, up to a certain limited amount in any calendar month, the amount varying with the size of the system, and without previous specific authorization by the board.

The reasons for these guaranteed powers will be discussed in subsequent chapters.

Educational organization in the large city. As the city school system increases in size with the growth of the city, coming to employ five to eight hundred teachers, or more, the need for a further expansion and differentiation of the educational organization will arise, with the result that a larger and a more highly specialized system will be developed. As before, the superintendent of schools should remain the nominal head of the entire organization, exercising supervisory oversight of all departments, though with special control of the educational department.

The form of organization for this large type of city school system is shown by Figure 21, inserted here. The need for still larger grasp and insight and administrative skill on the part of the superintendent of schools will be apparent if such an organization is to be coördinated properly and effective educational work secured all along the line. Real educational statesmanship and leadership of a high order are now necessary qualities for the superintendent with such an educational organization to direct.

The following may be taken to represent the personnel and scope of the school system shown in Figure 21:

INSTRUCTIONAL EMPLOYEES	INSTRUCTIONAL EMPLOYEES
1 superintendent of schools.	15 principals large elementary schools, white.
2 assistant superintendents.	6 principals smaller elementary schools, white.
1 supervisor of colored schools.	3 principals elementary schools, colored.
8 special supervisors.	262 elementary-school teachers.
1 cafeteria manager.	135 junior-high-school teachers.
1 supervisor of primary work.	107 high-school teachers.
1 supervisor of playgrounds.	22 kindergarten teachers.
1 high-school principal, white schools.	24 evening-school teachers.
1 high-school principal, colored schools.	12 vocational-school teachers.
1 evening high-school principal.	8 part-time-act teachers.
5 junior-high-school principals.	

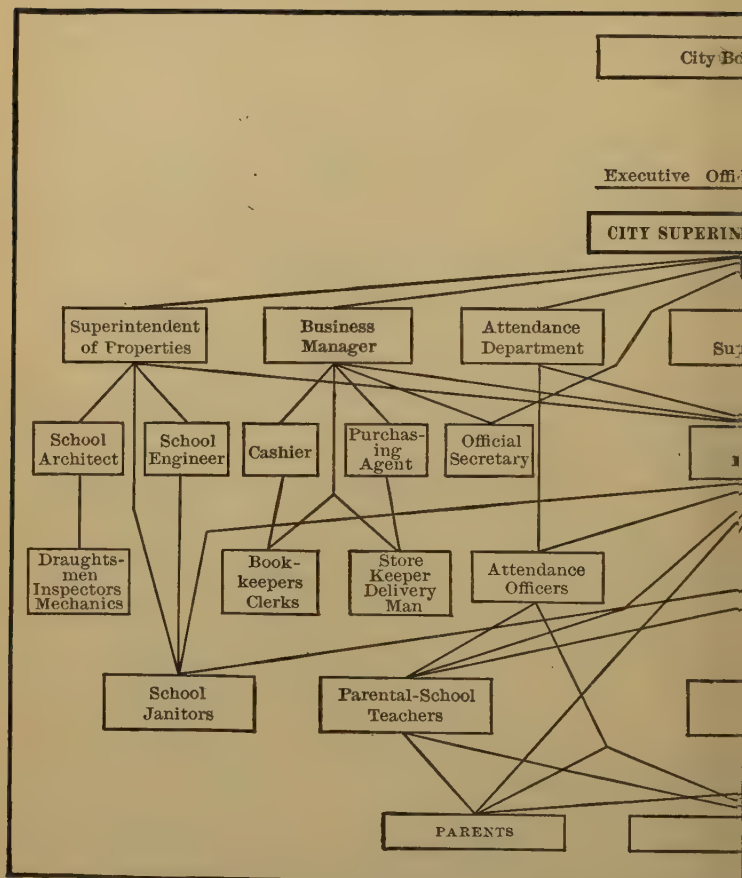


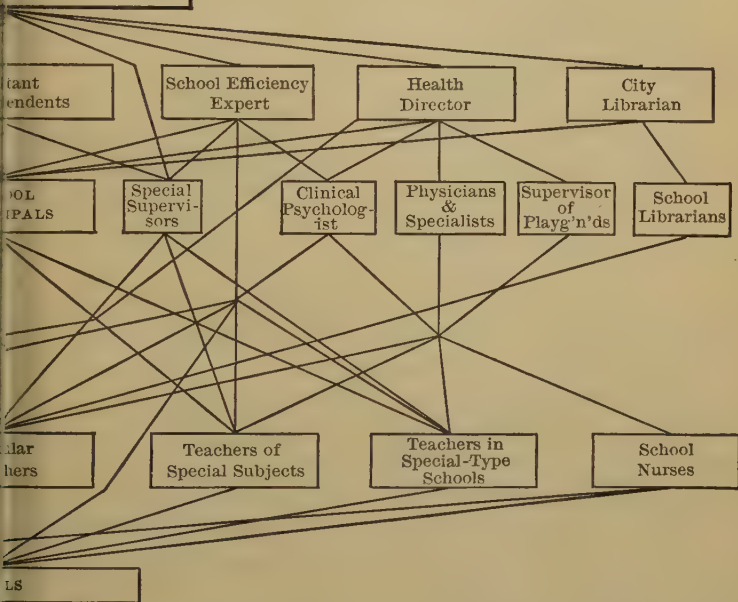
FIG. 21. PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A L.

This plan would apply to a city employing from 500 to 1000 teachers, and upwards. THE work for

of Education

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MENT OF SCHOOLS



CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND SHOWING PROPER RELATIONSHIPS

and committees have disappeared entirely, departmental organization taking their place and doing
done by committees.

INSTRUCTIONAL EMPLOYEES

- 5 parental-school teachers.
- 5 visiting teachers.
- 1 director of school health work.
- 2 school physicians (part-time).
- 2 school dentists (part-time).
- 6 school nurses.
- 1 clinical psychologist.
- 1 school efficiency expert.
- 2 supervisors of tests, and statisticians.

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SCOPE OF SYSTEM

- 2 high schools.
- 1 evening high school.
- 5 junior high schools.
- 24 elementary schools.
- 20 kindergarten classes.
- 1 day vocational school.
- 1 psychological clinic.
- 1 dental clinic.

OFFICE FORCE

- 1 secretary to superintendent.
- 4 clerks, office superintendent.
- 1 business manager.
- 1 auditor and cashier.
- 1 purchasing agent.
- 1 storekeeper.
- 1 textbook clerk.
- 1 delivery man.
- 2 bookkeepers.
- 1 superintendent of properties.
- 1 school engineer.
- 1 architect and draftsman.
- 1 city librarian.
- 7 assistant librarians.
- 5 attendance officers.
- 48 school janitors.
- 21 school clerks and registrars.
- 10 office clerks.
- 12 office stenographers.

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3. *Unit vs. multiple control*

Central position of the educational department. In all of the diagrams showing proper relationships, it will be noticed, the educational department has been given the central position, and a straight line leads from the superintendent of schools direct to the pupils in the schools. On each side of the educational department certain officers or departments are shown, and these handle certain parts of the city's educational business and are related, more or less directly, to the educational department. In the larger city organization, shown in Figure 21, the number of schools and offices and functions included in the educational department naturally is larger than in the smaller cities, but the same primacy of the educational department has been retained throughout.

This is as it should be. The educational department came first, and all of the other officers and departments have been

created since and for the sole purpose of enabling the educational department to render a larger community service. The building department, the business department, the attendance department, the health department, the clerical department, the research department, and any other department which may be created exist primarily to aid the educational department in fulfilling better the work for which the schools were established; and the one important reason why the superintendent of schools, in addition to being indicated as the executive head of the educational department, also is given general oversight and coördinating power over all of the other departments, as the executive head of the entire school system, is that he may preserve this relationship and prevent any department from aggrandizing itself at the expense of the best interests of the children in the schools. Buildings, for example, are necessary, and so are supplies and equipment, but buildings are erected to enable teachers to teach children in them, and supplies and equipment are furnished to facilitate the work of instruction. In planning the buildings and selecting the supplies and equipment the needs of the educational department must be paramount. Both building and supplies departments exist only to serve, though the head of each of these occasionally forgets this fact and seems to imagine that the educational department has been created to afford work for him.

Executive heads of departments. The city superintendent of schools, it also will be seen from the different drawings showing proper relationships, has in each case been given general coördinating oversight over all departments, in addition to being the head of the educational department. He is, as it were, the prime minister, who at the same time holds a cabinet portfolio. This primacy is essential for effective service and the preservation of proper official relationships. If an analogy be taken from the business world,

then the superintendent of schools occupies a position analogous to that of the president of a large business corporation, working with the board of directors and having general supervision of the conduct of the business, though leaving each manager and department head large liberty of action so long as the business prospers. Figure 22 will make this analogy clear.

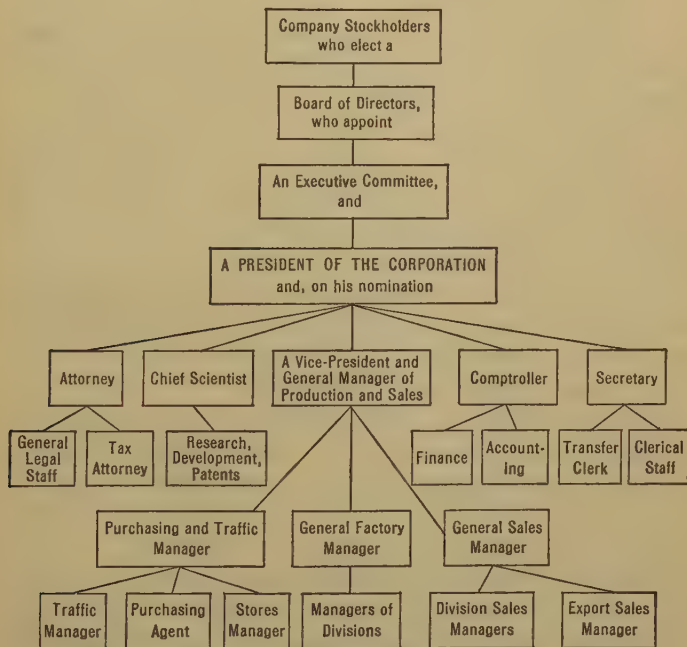


FIG. 22. ORGANIZATION CHART FOR A MANUFACTURING CORPORATION

In practice, each head of a department in a large and well-organized school system will conduct the affairs of his department, and without interference on the part of the superintendent, but in cases of friction or conflict of authority the

superintendent should be the coördinating head. The work of the different departments so overlap that this is a virtual necessity, and in cities where such coördination does not exist friction and conflict occur from time to time, or almost all the time, with the inevitable result that the efficiency of the schools is materially impaired.

In addition to the guaranteed powers of the superintendent, previously enumerated, each head of a department also should be guaranteed certain powers within his own department. These we shall indicate when we consider the work of each of these departments, in subsequent chapters of this volume.

Unit vs. departmental organization. Up to this point we have considered city school department organization as being what is known as the unit type — that is, one having a single executive officer directly responsible to the school board, and with department heads subordinate in authority to this chief executive officer. This is the type of school organization found in the great majority of our cities, and is the form of organization employed almost universally in business and industry. It is also the one recommended by almost all writers on education and municipal government. This unit plan has gradually superseded the departmental plan in city government, and it is employed practically everywhere in the business and industrial world.

Within recent years there has been some agitation, coming chiefly from business managers, school clerks, and superintendents of buildings and grounds, for the substitution of a departmental or multiple form of organization in the management of our larger school systems. Under this plan there would be a series of department heads of equal rank, each being responsible directly to the board of education, or to some committee of the board, and the board, rather than the superintendent, being the coördinating head.

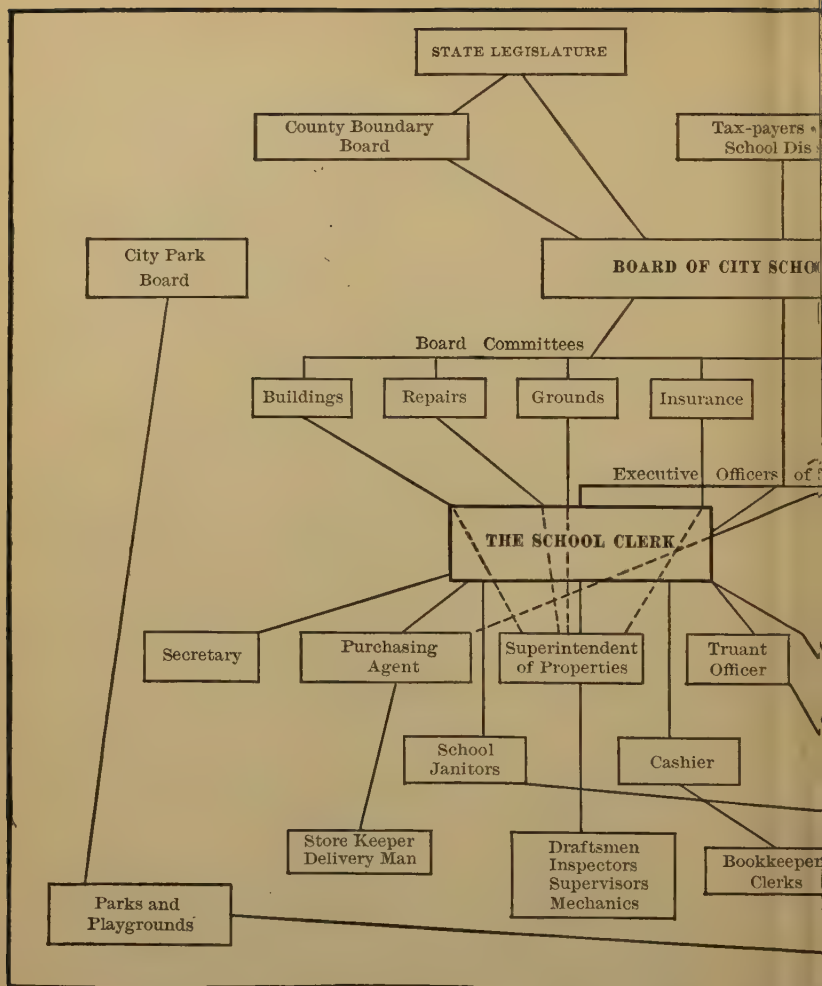
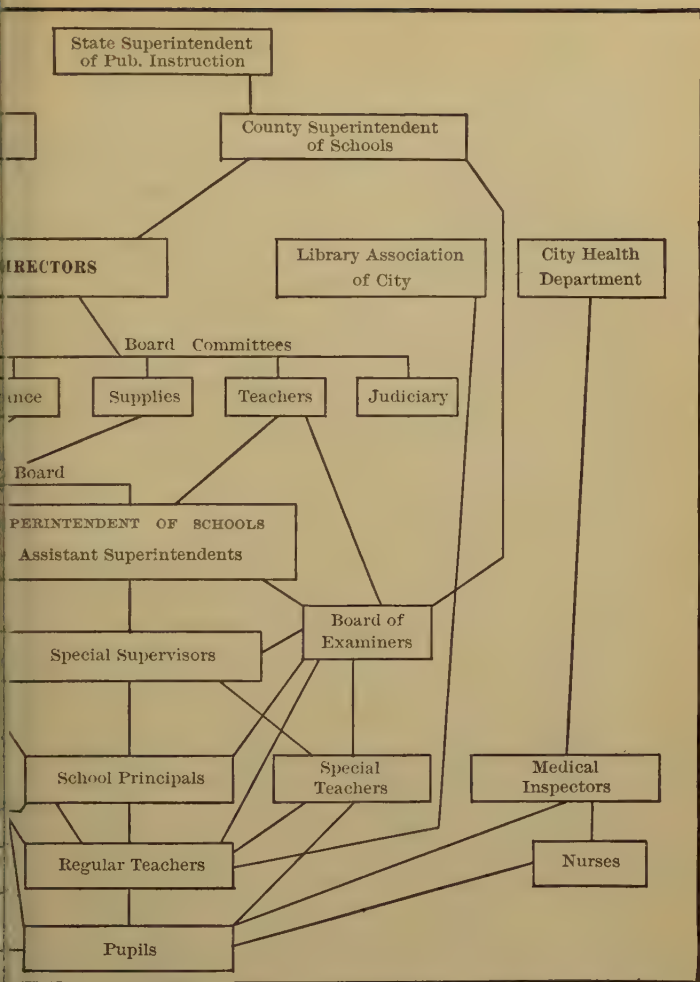


FIG. 23. AN INCORRECT FORM OF ORGANIZATION

This form of organization was found in a city of 250,000 inhabitants, employing approximately 10,000 people. The influence of this official in school control. Similar distorted form of organization.



ATIONAL ORGANIZATION

teachers. The heavy lines about the School Clerk indicate the preponderating organization are still found in some of our cities.

This form of control is known as divided, or multiple control.

A balancing of the arguments, *pro* and *con*, leaves the educational advantages clearly in favor of the unit plan, and an examination of the arguments advanced leads one to conclude that those advocating the departmental plan have either had an autocratic and inefficient superintendent of schools to work with, or that they are more interested in building up the prestige and patronage of the departments they head than they are in coördinated effort for the chief purpose for which all school department organization should exist. The weight of experience, both in the educational and the business world,¹ and the judgment of writers on municipal and business administration, are against the departmental plan and favorable to the unit plan which we have described. Friction and conflict are the almost inevitable result of divided authority, responsibility is evaded, committee control with its accompanying "committee courtesy" becomes the common practice, and the proper progress of the school system is impeded — often markedly so.

Faulty educational organization. In closing this chapter on city school department organization we wish to produce, for purposes of discussion, an improper form of educational organization which for long existed in one of our larger American cities. Under this form of educational organization, as shown in Fig. 23, the school clerk, if at all capable and vigorous, is almost certain to become the head of the school system and to dominate the whole situation. This produced a wrong type of unit control.

¹ Because industry has to meet keen competition and produce a superior product in order to survive and pay dividends, it has in general evolved a more efficient organization than have the public schools, which are on a non-competitive basis. In business the least efficient methods are eliminated by the losses they create; in education success depends largely on public attitudes toward the management, and efficiency is not the important concern.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is good experience as a principal of an elementary school better preparation for city superintendence than the principalship of a high school?
2. Why is a school system in which the superintendent of schools is only a good average member of the teaching force likely to be an unprogressive system?
3. Why may such a condition please certain communities better than to have a well-informed man in the position?
4. List the different one-sided developments which a superintendent of schools in a small city may easily come to represent, and classify them in the order of their danger to the superintendent's future growth and larger usefulness.
5. In cities that you know, how far does the superintendent exercise control of functions by law given to the board?
6. Why may a superintendent, who was a good superintendent when the city was small, not be a good man for the place after the city has experienced a very rapid increase in population?
7. Suppose that the superintendent of schools has not the professional knowledge, the good judgment, or the force of character which would enable him to use the "guaranteed powers" wisely; what should a board of education do in such a case?
8. Should the head of a business department determine the kind of school supplies to be purchased? Why?
9. Should the head of a school properties department determine the kind of brooms and sweeping compound to be used? Why?
10. Show how and why the unit plan is likely to be more economical than the departmental plan.
11. Show how and why the departmental plan could not work advantageously in the management of a railroad, or an automobile factory.
12. Suppose you were being employed to manage a large city hotel. Show what help an organization chart would be to you, and the analogy to a school system chart.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. List, in two columns, the guaranteed legal powers of a superintendent of schools and the legal functions of a board of education, in your State, as given in the *School Law*.

2. Investigate the peculiar form of educational organization used at Schenectady, New York (*Report U.S. Commissioner of Education*, 1913, vol. 1, pp. 99-100), and reduce it to a diagram showing relationships.
3. What are the fundamental principles of industrial organization? (Kimball.)

PROBLEMS

1. Draw up a set of school-board rules and regulations which will give to the superintendent of schools all of the "guaranteed powers" mentioned under this paragraph heading.
2. Make a drawing, similar to those given in this chapter, to show the form of educational organization in some city with which you are acquainted. If the form of organization is not a satisfactory one, make a second drawing, showing a desirable form of organization for the city to adopt.
3. Reconstruct the educational organization shown in Figure 23, by making a new and rearranged drawing, so as to give this city a proper educational organization.
4. Make an organization chart for some business organization or corporation that you know, or can read about, and compare this with the educational organization charts given in this chapter.
5. Make an organization chart for the college or university you attend, and see what type of control is represented.

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Holds for unit plan, and defines functions of both board and superintendent under such control.

School Survey Reports. See the chapter on administrative organization in any good school survey Report available.

CHAPTER XVII

ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT

The superintendent as a department head. In addition to being the executive head of the whole school system of the city, the superintendent should be, in particular, the executive head of the educational department of the system. Such is his proper place in the educational organization, and not as the head of the business and clerical department or of the school buildings and repair department. The work of these departments he must necessarily be in touch with, but if these are the only departments he knows how to manage and direct intimately he should be made head of one or the other, or in a small city of the two combined, or dropped altogether, and a new superintendent of schools for the city should be obtained to head the educational department. A superintendent of schools should be primarily an educational leader, and, while he must of necessity handle many matters in many different fields, he should in particular stand out as the head of the educational department of the school system.

As the executive head of the whole school system he must oversee and coördinate all phases of the work of the school department, and must discuss many questions of policy and procedure with his department heads, and with the board and its committees. Often he must abide by the decisions of the board, even though such do not coincide with his views as to what should be done. As executive head of the educational department of the school system, however, he occupies a somewhat different rôle. Here he should be especially expert; here, after all, should be his major interest; and

here he should be able to work unimpeded by the board or its committees.¹ When new undertakings are to be begun, new types of schools are to be established, or additional funds are needed, the board will, of course, need to be consulted and to give its sanction, but in the detailed work of this department, and especially in all of those matters which relate to courses of study and the supervision of instruction, the superintendent should be allowed to work without interference. In almost all matters his judgment as to what should be done, and how it should be done, should prevail. When the board loses confidence in his judgment in such matters it should secure a new superintendent, rather than attempt to do the work itself.

He gives character to the department. The educational department proper, as will be seen from the organization charts given in the preceding chapter, includes assistant superintendents, special supervisors, principals, regular and special teachers, and teachers in special-type schools. This department includes by far the largest number of employees in any department — a larger number, in fact, than in all of the other departments of the school system combined. It is the central department in the school system — the department for the advancement of which all of the others exist.

¹ "The superintendent ought to be the educational adviser of the board of education, and his counsel ought to command the same respect on their part as that of a city solicitor on a question of law, or that of the city physician on a question of sanitation or public health. He ought to be held strictly responsible for his advice, just as they are, and for the action of the board based upon it. He and not the school board ought to be held responsible by the public for the course of study and the methods of teaching in the schools. If his advice and judgment are found to be untrustworthy, the school board, instead of retaining him and making him simply their clerk and agent, and assuming the responsibility themselves which properly belongs to him as an expert, ought to dismiss him and secure a person whose judgment they can trust." (T. M. Balliett, in *Educational Review*, vol. 2, p. 484.)

It is primarily the task of the superintendent to give tone and character to this department. His view must cover the school system as a whole, and its many relations to the complex life of the community which maintains it. He must keep thinking of what the schools should be doing for each boy and girl in them, and how best this may be done. Out of his clearer vision as to purposes, his more mature judgment as to ways and means, and his enthusiasm as to what it is possible to do, he should give a definite trend to the thinking of every one, from assistant superintendent to grade teacher, who has to do with the instruction of children in the schools. The attitude he takes toward the school problems, his professional interest, his conception as to the nature and purpose of school supervision, his energy or lack of it, his friendliness and frankness, and his ability to lead professionally and to offer helpful and constructive criticism, will all be important elements in developing a professional *esprit de corps* in all those below him who work on the problem of instruction. It is as a leader of thought and an inspirer of high professional ideals that he can render his largest service. By being such he transforms his principals and supervisors from routine workers and inspectors into professional leaders, and his teachers from slaves of a system and a course of study into those whose labors are directed by a clear vision and a large purpose.

Sensitiveness of teachers to leadership. So sensitive is a body of teachers to the influence of intelligent and constructive leadership that a superintendent who knows his community and thinks in terms of its needs, who knows educational theory and can apply it in practice, who is deeply interested in the work of the educational department, who can impart vision to and instill an ambition to excel in his supervisors and principals, and who can approach teachers in a friendly and a helpful spirit, can do almost anything

within reason in developing an enthusiasm for service in a teaching force in any city of small or moderate size.¹

On the other hand, the superintendent who is essentially an office superintendent, who from his office chair promulgates and enforces a uniformity throughout the school system, who inspects rather than supervises, and who controls by rules and regulations rather than by developing initiative and strength on the part of those under him, will in time develop a school system so uniform that progress will become difficult, a supervisory force which lacks initiative and keeps close to old and well-established paths, and a teaching force wanting in personal strength and professional enthusiasm. One type of superintendent produces a live school system; the other a dead one. Regulations "from the office" and the enforcement of the letter of the law kill; it is the spirit and the personal touch which give life.

Characteristics of good supervisory organization. A good supervisory organization is almost always a product of intelligent and helpful leadership at the top. Under such, a positive premium is placed on the development of those personal and professional qualities, on the part of all subordinates down the line, which serve to give individual strength and character to and to develop self-reliance in a teaching force. A judicious use of personal liberty in action is encouraged, and individual thinking and personal growth are stimulated by the placing of responsibility and by the encouragement of individual initiative. A premium is placed on personal efficiency, and on being and keeping better than the average of the mass. The adaptation of school work to needs and to capacity, intelligent departure from the

¹ The larger a city becomes the harder, of course, it is for a superintendent to do this, and the more he must depend upon subordinates. In a large city a superintendent tends to be removed from personal touch with his teachers and personal contact with their problems.

ordinary procedure, and the substitution of thought and intelligence for mechanical routine are not only permitted, but distinctly approved and rewarded. On the other hand, the man or woman who merely drifts along, doing little thinking, handling details in a typical routine manner, taking few chances, doing only what is required, and fearful of the envy of associates or the criticism of superiors, is made to feel supervisory disapproval and a pressure to improve and to keep professionally alive.

Responsibility of all for successful work. Every higher supervisory officer, too, should be made to feel that he (or she) is a part of a live directive organization, with a mission for helpful and constructive service, and in large part responsible for the proper carrying-out of the common educational policy of the superintendent and themselves. Every principal, too, should be made to understand clearly that he must keep alive professionally and awake and busy, and that he is not only directly responsible for the success of the administrative policy in his particular school, but that he is also in part responsible for the general success of such policy throughout the whole educational organization as well. Any attempt at the monopolization of success, any unwillingness to share ideas with others, or any evidence of selfishness in permitting other schools to take advantage of his best contributions, should be frowned upon, and the man should be made to feel the importance of the common cause by imparting to him a larger ideal of professional service. In the working-out of special room-problems, every teacher, also, should be made to feel that her individuality is appealed to. Should her plans not be approved by the principal, who ought to be prominent in such stimulation of individual initiative, it should be done in such a manner as will encourage rather than discourage further efforts in this direction.

A weak supervisory organization. On the other hand, that is a weak supervisory organization where all is mechanically laid out; where the supervisor's chief duty is not to supervise but to see that the work is being carried out as directed; where principals are clerks and statisticians, rather than professional leaders; and where teachers are so discouraged from any attempts at individuality by those above them in authority that they come to feel that to lift a head above the average of the mass is only to display a target for those above to hit. No surer recipe could be given for killing professional interest and enthusiasm, for changing live teachers into dead ones, or for driving teachers together into unions to raise wages, shorten the hours of labor, and protect one another from the criticism of supervisory officers and of the board of education.

Too much activity on the part of the school board or its committees in matters which it should not attempt to handle; too little responsibility for results placed with the superintendent, and placed by him in turn with his subordinates; an office-chair superintendent, or a superintendent whose chief interest is in some other branch of the service than the educational; a weak but well-meaning superintendent, who lacks technical preparation and any guiding educational philosophy for the conduct of the schools; a strong and vigorous superintendent, but who lacks the same professional preparation and philosophy, and who rules with so strong a hand that no one under him is allowed much liberty in thought or action; a superintendent whose conception of educational administration is that of clockwork, machinery, inspections, and uniform output, and who runs the educational department much as he would run a factory — any one of these conditions will not only fail to develop strength and individuality on the part of those who do the real work of the schools, but will crush out any of these qualities the workers may possess.

Just as a strong and capable parent, by deciding everything for a child, and directing all of his important actions, may crush his individuality and initiative and leave him weak-willed, so over-direction by supervisory officers may produce the same result in a teaching force. The teachers become dependent upon authority, want everything which they are to do definitely laid out, and in time become mechanical workers devoid of all professional interest and enthusiasm. On the other hand, just as a good teacher tries, as rapidly as possible, to make himself unnecessary to the pupil by training him to think and act for himself, and by showing him where and how to get information and how to secure results, so a good supervisory organization tries to make itself unnecessary, in many matters, by training teachers to act independently and to think for themselves.

Personnel of the supervisory organization. In a small city, such, for example, as is provided for in the educational organization shown in Figure 19, the organization will of necessity be quite simple, and the large proportion of the superintendent's time and thinking must of necessity be given to the work of the educational department. He and his principals must represent the supervisory organization, and together must carry out the community educational policy. At most, such a superintendent can hope to have only a few special supervisors, and these perhaps for only part time. The salaries, probably, will be quite moderate, and the character of the principals and supervisors only mediocre, so far as training, experience, and educational insight are concerned. Such a situation demands that the superintendent furnish most of the vision and inspiration necessary to lead to effective work. In a sense he must conduct a normal school, with his supervisors, principals, and teachers as the students, showing them what is to be done, why it should be done, and how best to do it.

In a medium-sized city, such as is provided for in the educational organization shown in Figure 20, a larger and presumably a better supervisory corps will be available. An assistant superintendent, a woman assistant superintendent for primary work, another assistant who can help in directing the administration of the courses of instruction and in testing results, a half-dozen special supervisors, and a number of presumably better-trained school principals, will now constitute the supervisory corps.

In a still larger city, such as is provided for in the educational organization shown in Figure 21, that is a city of 60,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, or upwards, the staff would consist of one or more assistant superintendents, a number of supervisors of special subjects, a number of special-type professional workers, and a still larger corps of presumably still better-trained and more experienced school principals, now supervising a number of different types of schools. To coördinate, direct, and keep this staff up to his own high conceptions for the educational service, and through them to reach down to the children for whom the schools after all exist, is the peculiar task and the large opportunity of the superintendent of schools as the executive head of the educational department.

Let us now examine the peculiar characteristics of each main group of such a supervisory organization.

Assistant superintendent and supervisor. The assistant superintendent, except in a somewhat rudimentary form, will not exist except in the larger cities — cities from 30,000 to 50,000 and more. Special supervisors exist in most of the smaller cities and often, in their duties, shade into assistant superintendents. This is especially true of the supervisors of primary and upper-grade work.

These officers constitute the superintendent's cabinet for the administration of the department of education, and the

character of this cabinet is of fundamental importance to him. Upon their educational insight, largeness of vision, ability in administration, discretion, tact, personal loyalty, and frankness in cabinet discussions must depend, to a large degree, his success or failure in the administration of the schools. They are not merely deputy administrators, but in a special sense they are his counselors and advisers, and the representatives of the superintendent and his educational policy before the teachers and the public. They act through his authority and in his name, and they must be able and willing to assume their proper share of the responsibility for the successful administration of the schools.

Cabinet solidarity. This educational cabinet, too, must be a constructive cabinet, one which will discuss plans freely and frankly with the superintendent, be discreet enough not to talk outside about matters still under consideration, and able to carry into realization plans once decided upon. This calls for a body of men and women who can develop cabinet solidarity, who have sufficient insight and training to sense the purpose of what is proposed, sufficient enthusiasm for an ideal to enable them to enter fully into the plans and policy and ideals of a superintendent, and that personal force which will enable them to carry to the teachers in the service that fire and enthusiasm which carries plans into realities and unites a teaching force behind the purposes of the system.

Such a cabinet is of large service in guiding the system, sensing the feeling of the teaching staff or of the community, removing misunderstandings, and averting storms. Any system of educational administration that is worth much will tend to outrun the understanding of the community, and oftentimes also that of the teaching force. Misunderstandings, personal enmity, and political attack must be expected to appear from time to time. Most often such

troubles are due to a simple lack of understanding of what is proposed, but sometimes they arise from the unwillingness of certain teachers to work, the desire of some politically inclined principal "to put the superintendent in wrong" with the community, or the pure charlatanism of some editor or politician in the community. Progress calls for continuous education, and, while the attacks may be exasperating, explanation of purposes to teachers, and the continuous education of the public to understand what the schools are trying to do, are among the surest means for warding off or minimizing the effect of such attacks. In sensing and reporting the feeling of the teaching staff, and in explaining plans both before teachers and the community, the members of the superintendent's cabinet have an important part to play. The man or woman who lies down in the harness and refuses to pull at such moments is not worthy of a place in a supervisory corps.

The personal equation. The importance of proper selections for such positions can hardly be overestimated, and is seldom appreciated by boards of education. The individual equation is a very important element here. Men or women who will not or cannot coöperate, who lack personality and enthusiasm, who cannot bear responsibility easily and well, or who do not have broad views as to educational purposes or processes, should neither be selected nor retained in such positions. The real basis of the efficiency of the supervisor lies, after all, in the largeness of his conception of the function of public education in a democratic society; in the ideals he has for his part in the work; in his judgment of values in dealing with teachers; in his knowledge of the community need for what he is supervising; in his good common sense and practical ability, as shown in his dealings with situations and people; in his courtesy, fairness, and gentlemanly ways; and in his ability to impart to others his own high

ideals as to work and his own enthusiasm for helpful service.

A superintendent, though, if he is the type of a superintendent he should be, can hardly expect his associates to see things at first from quite as large or as mature a point of view as he does. It must then be one of his important functions to think out and to unfold his ideas and plans to them; to stimulate their thinking on and frank criticism of them; and to awaken in them something of his larger conception as to educational service. A superintendent who can measure up to such a standard, and who can extend such helpful leadership to those associated with him, can in time develop a strong and forceful administrative corps and a good supporting body of teachers, because under such leadership all those who are useful members of the organization come to feel that they are working toward reasonable and attainable goals.

Relations of superintendent and assistant. An assistant superintendent bears a peculiarly confidential relation to a superintendent of schools. A primary supervisor in a small school system occupies much the same position to the superintendent. Each must be the superintendent's "right-hand man."

As such an assistant's time is given more to schoolroom visitation than the superintendent's can be, he comes to be in closer touch with the teachers, and to have a bird's-eye view of the whole situation. His opinion on many matters can be of much value to his superior. Seeing teachers in all parts of the school system, he forms a much truer estimate of their worth and effectiveness than do school principals, and an important part of his work should be the discovery of talent and capacity and the advising of the superintendent as to the placing of such qualities so as to result in the greatest advantage to the school system.¹

¹ "His time is spent in the schoolrooms — observing, listening, judg-

He should be able to sense the superintendent's policy and to adapt and elaborate it as special needs may require, and without continually bothering the superintendent for instructions as to details. In particular he should strive to economize the superintendent's time by being willing to take a temporary assignment of a part of his responsibility and authority; by directing him as to where he can most quickly see the best in instruction or the particular needs of the schools; by giving him notes as to conditions, progress, or needs for use in teachers' or principals' meetings; and by not taking too much of his time himself. To be ready for a conference when a conference is desired, to be able to talk to the point and not too long, and to know when to leave, are valuable characteristics in one who has to deal with a busy man. He must also be able and willing to draw conclusions, to state his evidence, to shoulder responsibility, and, if occasion demands, to stand behind his guns.¹ Such a relationship calls for a degree of intelligence, courage, loyalty, and *savoir-faire* which is not especially abundant in this world.

The special supervisors. In by far the large majority of our cities, as has been pointed out, the cabinet organization will be very small and very simple. A few special supervisors for special branches of instruction, with perhaps a

ing, encouraging, praising, suggesting, correcting. Using data thus gained, he should be ready to consult with the superintendent at any time, and to report skillful teachers who deserve recognition and promotion; misplaced teachers who should be transferred to other grades or other sections of the city; incompetent teachers, with a statement of their specific defects; crying evils which should be rectified as soon as discovered; questionable practices which need to be considered and modified; special courses which merit extension; sources of strength and weakness in the schools as a whole." (Alice E. Reynolds, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, p. 265.)

¹ "The all important attribute of an assistant in his relation to the superintendent is an absolutely candid frankness. The man who delivers an ambiguous opinion, who hesitates to express a conviction, or who dislikes to be quoted when an issue is at stake, will prove a poor sailing mate in rough weather." (Alice E. Reynolds, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, p. 266.)

primary supervisor added in the medium-sized cities, will constitute the usual supervisory staff. In all of the smaller cities, however, the school principals can and should be included as a part of the cabinet group for the consideration of plans and procedure.

It will be well, in any case, for the special supervisors — penmanship, drawing, music, cooking, sewing, manual-training, school-gardening, playgrounds — if they are thrown into somewhat close contact with the principals and the primary supervisor. One of the important matters which superintendents of schools should look after, in the administration of the educational department, is that of preventing a narrow specialization in the work of his special supervisors. In a twentieth-century American school system it is important that a supervisor's view as to his own responsibility be broad. The mere specialist, who thinks of little else than proficiency in his own special subject of instruction, is of relatively little worth. His enthusiasm for his own subject is of course valuable, but if it serves to obscure his vision of the larger interests of the school system as a whole it is not a healthful enthusiasm. A superintendent should see that his specialists, while encouraged to do good work in their respective lines, nevertheless keep their subjects subservient to the larger purposes which the schools as a whole are attempting to carry forward. This breadth of view, in the smaller city organizations, he usually must develop in them. The instruction in each special subject should contribute something toward enabling boys and girls to fill efficiently the spheres of life possible for them, as well as impart mere technical and measurable ability in subject matter.¹

¹ "It is the business of a general superintendent of schools jealously to defend a general liberal education for children against the inevitable attacks of special supervisors, who so naturally try to monopolize most of

The school principals. Whatever other supervisory officers may or may not exist for the purpose of coördinating and improving the administration of a school system, the unit of supervision is naturally the individual school,¹ and the principals of the schools become the instruments through which such supervisory control is exercised.

We are not likely to overestimate the importance of the office of school principal. As the superintendent of schools gives tone and character to the whole school system, so the school principal gives tone and character to the school under his control. "As is the principal, so is the school," is perhaps a truer statement than the similar one referring to the teacher. In the administration of a school system the office of school principal should be magnified.² Whatever can be

the general teachers' time and energy in teaching and worrying about their special subjects. If he expects special supervisors to be strong in their special fields, he must be equally so in the general field." (M. C. Potter, in *Proceedings N.E.A.*, 1913, p. 297.)

¹ In a few cities, notably Indianapolis and Baltimore, a group system for principalships is in use. Under this plan, one central school containing the upper grades, and sometimes the lower as well, has three or four surrounding primary schools, containing only the lower grades, attached to the central school for purposes of supervision. The four or five schools thus form a group, often designated by a letter, and the sixty to seventy-five teachers are under a supervisory principal, who in consequence partakes a little of the nature of an assistant superintendent. A good description of such a plan may be found in the *Report of the Commission Appointed to Study the Public Schools of Baltimore*, pp. 49-53.

² "I would make the position of school principal one place of fixed and definite responsibility, and I would magnify and dignify that position and office. I would have him feel the responsibility of the place he occupies. I would do my work with his school through him. I would have everything pertaining to his school pass through his hands, both to and from. Questions and complaints, whether of parents, teachers, or pupils, should be answered, adjusted, and settled either by him or in his presence. I would have all parties, however, and particularly the principal, understand that an appeal from all decisions was always in order, provided the principal be first served with notice of such appeal." (A. B. Blodgett, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1903, p. 226.)

done to add strength and dignity and responsibility to the office should be done, with the view to making each principal feel that his work is large and important, and that he must keep constantly growing if he is to continue to measure up to the demands of the position.¹

The knowledge, insight, skill, and qualities for helpful leadership of the principal of the school practically determine the ideals and standards of achievements of both teachers and pupils within the school. The best of supervisory organization cannot make a strong school where the principal is weak and inefficient, while a strong and capable principal can develop a strong school even in cities where the general supervisory organization is notoriously weak and ineffective and the professional interest of the teachers notoriously low. The mere fact that helpful supervision is so predominantly personal in its nature and methods gives to the office of school principal a large potential importance.²

The term "potential importance" is used advisedly, because, despite recent advances and taken generally over the United States, the weakest place in our city organization and administration still is found in the principalship of our elementary schools. Many who hold such positions have had no real training for the work, and many have come to their position without any special fitness for the service. Many principals give their time almost entirely to administrative duties and do little supervisory work, though the latter ought to be their most important function. Of those who do super-

¹ In the figures given in the preceding chapter (Figs. 19-21) note how the lines of authority converge to and radiate from the principal.

² Another book of this series is devoted entirely to the work of a principal in the organization, administration, and supervision of a school, and sets forth much more in detail the importance of this office. It is entitled *The Principal and His School*, and is by the present author. Still another volume, *Supervision by the Principal*, by C. R. Stone, deals with the supervisory side of the principal's duties.

visory work, many fail to make their supervision helpfully constructive to the teachers supervised.

Often the principals are not wholly, or even largely to blame for such a condition. Too often the principal is given almost no authority to vary anything, or to depart in any way from the rigid uniformity prescribed for all from above. Under such conditions the supervision easily degenerates into inspection, and the principal stands in the school, not as the helpful leader and inspirer of his teachers, but as the representative of a system imposed upon all by those in authority above. He keeps the records, times the teachers, manages the fire drills, carries the keys to the supply-room, and hands out the chalk to the teachers. Even good principals gradually lose their energy and their capacity for usefulness under such an administrative organization,¹ and what ought to be a key position in the administrative and supervisory organization fails in service.

Increasing their effectiveness. It should be one of the purposes of a good supervisory organization to break up such a condition. The superintendent in almost any American school system probably will need to spend much time and effort on the professional education of his principals. It is important that he do this. He must build up in them good educational conceptions, give them something of his own vision and insight, develop in them ideals and standards for work, and awaken a desire on their part to excel. This will involve the breaking up of rigidity and uniformity in the school system, the placing of responsibility with them for results rather than the following of a uniform plan, the development among the principals of a guiding philosophy and a theory of supervision, and the weeding out of those who will not devote themselves to a serious study of the problems which concern their work and their school.

¹ See the *Portland School Survey*, chap. III, and chap. VIII, subdiv. 6, for a good illustration of the deadening effects of such a system.

At the principals' meetings, which should be relatively frequent, the general policy should be outlined in a series of straightforward and candid talks. The best results in the schools of his own or of other school systems should be presented. The difference between office-chair administration and clerical perfection on the one hand, and helpful and constructive supervision on the other, should be clearly set forth. The means by which administrative efficiency is attained should be presented, and common defects in school administration and supervision pointed out.¹ The more experienced and sagacious of the principals should be asked to explain their methods and plans of work, that the young, cranky, and unwise ones may be benefited by such a presentation. Ideals and standards for work should be formulated, and ways and means of extending helpful supervision to teachers set forth.

Underlying purposes of the supervisory organization. While the superintendent and his assistants must of necessity guide and direct and prevent waste in instruction, the difference between helpful supervision and mere inspection should ever be kept prominently in mind. Supervision should mean help, encouragement, and support rather than inspection and criticism. Money spent on supervisors whose chief work lies in enforcing the obedience of all to uniform rules and regulations, checking-up and percenting the school work done to see if it tallies with the course of study laid down, manipulating the details and the red tape of the administrative machinery, and tracking down violators of the prescribed rules, is money wasted, and its effect on a teaching force is positively bad.

Instead, the underlying purpose of supervision is to break up any such tendencies, to extend liberty of action so far as

¹ *The Salt Lake City School Survey Report*, chap. III, describes a good example of such service with a body of school principals.

liberty can be shown to be used intelligently, to place a premium on initiative and individuality, and to infuse a teaching force with such concepts of the purpose and means and ends of education as will lift their work above sordid details and make it seem to them truly great and worth while. With such a guiding conception means become less important than ends, and the careful following of regulations of less moment than the exercise of an intelligent individuality.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Should a board of education, on its own initiative, ever
 - (a) Order a study taught in a certain grade?
 - (b) Order a study taken out of a certain grade?
 - (c) Order the character of the instruction changed?
 - (d) Order a certain form of patriotism taught?
 - (e) Forbid the observance of an event or a birthday in the schools?
2. Should a committee of the board, or individual members of it, ever
 - (a) In visiting a school, openly criticize the work of a teacher?
 - (b) Find fault with a principal as to his conduct of the school?
 - (c) Give directions that anything should or should not be done?
3. Should a board, by rules and regulations, ever require
 - (a) All cases of discipline to be reported to it?
 - (b) That its permission be asked to enable teachers or schools to hold exhibits of their work or meetings with parents?
 - (c) That principals of schools be required to secure its permission before inviting any person to speak to the pupils of the school?
4. Should a superintendent of schools feel it necessary to ask the approval of the board, or a committee of it
 - (a) To permit a teacher to vary from the adopted course of study?

- (b) To authorize an educational experiment in connection with the instruction of some class, or school?
 - (c) To give permission to the teachers to entertain the parents of the children at the school?
 - (d) To close a school thirty minutes early to hold a teachers' meeting?
5. Should a board ever require that teachers and principals should not enroll in study courses during the months the schools are in session?
 6. Point out some of the means of professional leadership which may be used by a superintendent of schools.
 7. Suppose a board finds that the superintendent of schools does not really know what to do in educational matters, cannot lead, and has no courage or executive force, and still has two years of his term to serve. What should the board do in such a case?
 8. Why is a good woman supervisor of primary work one of the most desirable assistants a superintendent can add to his force?
 9. Suppose you were called to the superintendency in a city which for a long time had had a weak supervisory organization, and teachers, principals, supervisors, board of education, and the community were not acquainted with any better way: how would you go at it to institute a strong supervisory organization?
 10. Distinguish between an administrative organization and a supervisory organization; between administration and supervision.
 11. Why is a system of fines, as described in the *Report of the Portland School Survey*, not conducive to the development of a strong supervisory organization?
 12. Illustrate types of service of the members of the supervisory staff in educating the teachers and the public, so as to ward off criticism and prepare the way for further progress.
 13. What would you do, in an administrative way, to increase the importance of the office of school principal?
 14. What would you do if you wanted to train your principals to render helpful supervisory service? Outline your plan.
 15. What would you do when you find that half of your principals cannot shoulder responsibility, or render any supervisory service of value?

16. Many writers object to the term assistant superintendent, and propose inspector instead. Does this term express the purpose of such a supervisory officer? What would be a still better term to use?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. What are the chief duties and functions and services of assistant superintendents, in cities of moderate size which have such officials?
2. What are the chief duties and functions of a supervisor of primary work in cities employing such a person?
3. How does the group system of schools, with a supervisory principal for each group, as in Baltimore or Indianapolis, seem to compare in educational efficiency with the principal-for-each-school plan? Which plan is the more expensive for a city to follow?
4. Fourteen recommendations for reform are given at the close of chapter III of the *Report of the Portland School Survey*. After reading this chapter, discuss the desirability and feasibility of each of the first thirteen recommendations.
5. Teacher participation in the formulation of school policies.

PROBLEMS

1. If you were a superintendent of a small city and could have \$3000 a year for special supervisors, how would you spend it to get the maximum educational returns for the money invested?
2. Three small cities, located near one another along a trolley line, can afford only about \$2000 a year each for special supervision. What is the best plan you can suggest to enable each to get the maximum benefits from such an expenditure?
3. Make out a list of a half dozen topics of a kind such as a superintendent might need or desire to discuss with his "cabinet," in a city large enough to have such, aside from the principals.
4. Do the same for the principals' meetings in such a city.
5. Do the same, for a small city, where one special supervisor and a few principals constitute the entire supervisory staff.
6. Do the same for meetings of the special supervisors, in which the superintendent's underlying purpose will be to broaden their conceptions of the educational purpose.

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DIVISION II

THE TEACHING CORPS

CHAPTER XVIII

SELECTION AND TENURE OF TEACHERS

IN addition to superintendents, special supervisors, and principals, the educational department also includes that large body of persons who give instruction in the different schools and are known collectively as the teaching corps. The selection, assignment, designation for retention, promotion, and further training of these constitutes, where he is permitted to exercise such functions, an important part of the work of a superintendent of schools.

1. *The selection of teachers*

The yearly needs. Every school system needs a few additional teachers each year to replace those who resign, are removed, or die; to meet the natural growth of the city; and to provide for new types of instruction added. Even in cities where population is practically stationary a few new teachers will be needed each year, while in a rapidly growing city the annual selections may run into scores or even hundreds. To see that only the best available material is selected for the vacant and the new positions is an important duty, often neglected, resting upon the city school authorities. While it is not always realized, the most important place to guard the teaching service from deterioration is at the entrance gate.

In some cities the new teachers are selected largely by the superintendent of schools, his selections being approved

by the board of education; in other cities the board of education makes all the selections, sometimes without even consulting the superintendent about the matter; but in most of our cities the selections are, in large part, the work of the superintendent and board acting together, each trying to do what is best for the schools.

The early method. In the earlier days of our educational work, when there were but few trained teachers anywhere, when school supervision was in its beginnings, and when the demands made upon the schools were comparatively simple, the selection of teachers by boards of education answered the needs of the situation fairly well. On the scholastic and professional side, the passing of a simple written examination, given by an examining committee or by the county superintendent, and the issuance of a teacher's certificate, answered all demands.

On the personal side, which was the important one, the members of the teachers' committee of the school board, as well as the other board members, were visited by the different applicants and importuned by their friends; the personality and special needs of the applicant were given due consideration; and, consciously or unconsciously, the personal friendships, church relationships, lodge connections, and party affiliation of male relatives all played their part in determining who were to be selected by the board. The teachers' committee finally made its selections, formally reported the list to the full board for approval, and the board either adopted, or modified and then adopted, their report. The schools being regarded in large part as a local undertaking, and the theory that any one could teach who could govern being the chief pedagogical belief of the time, it followed that outsiders were seldom selected, and that the bright and attractive graduate of the last class in the local school system, the daughter of the estimable citizen, the

young lady who needed to help her widowed mother, or the widow or the deserted wife of a former local resident, were the natural persons selected to share the public bounty and to teach the children of the community in the schools. Where the schools had been taken possession of by the local politicians, some local boss, instead, had to be seen, and he dictated all the appointments made by the board.

Defects of this method. This earlier method has persisted, in whole or in part, in many of our American cities, but it is now rapidly being replaced by one more likely to result in the selection of a better type of teachers for the schools. There are two main defects in this earlier method.

In the first place, boards of laymen are not specially competent persons to make such selections. However honest they may be, they are more or less unconsciously influenced by local considerations which have nothing to do with the fitness of the candidate for the position of teacher. Personal relationships with the candidate and sympathy for her counts with them far too much; professional merit and adaptability to the work of instruction, for which they have no standards for judging, count for far too little. Professional preparation and success, too, are not appraised at their full worth, nor are the numerous personal factors that go to make up a successful instructor. A strong personal recommendation by a citizen and friend often counts for more than a strong letter of commendation, based on successful work, from a thoroughly reliable superintendent of schools whom the board members do not personally know.

The result is that not only are improper persons often selected for teaching positions, but the educational and professional preparation and standards of those individuals in the community who decide to take up teaching are seriously influenced by such bases for selection. The whole professional tone of the school system is lowered, and this in turn

tends to keep down the professional compensation of those already in the school system. The professional ideals and the conception of professional competency on the part of the teaching force are not stimulated, and the task of the superintendent in improving the instruction in the schools is, as a result, made much more difficult than is necessary. Ultimately the children in the schools and the community as a whole pay the price of the school board's attempt to exercise such a distinctly professional function as the selection of the teachers for the schools.

In the second place, the range of selection usually is much too narrow. Boards of education almost always wait for applicants, and then select from those who apply. The local candidate has the inside track under such a plan, can bring plenty of local pressure to bear, and usually secures the position. This tends to keep the home schools for the home girls, when as a matter of fact the home girls are not the equal of girls equally well prepared from the outside, unless they have gone away from home for their training. It is an important part of the training and life experience of a young person to go away from home, to get new ideas from others and to be influenced in new ways, and to come in contact with new people and gain new points of view. In no line of professional work is this more important than in teaching.

Importance of guarding appointments. Few more important duties rest upon a superintendent of schools and a board of education than that of guarding carefully the entrance to the position of teacher in the public schools. It is much better to keep out unprepared and improper persons in the beginning than to try to dismiss them later on, while the damage they do in the schools is prevented. Even at the best the superintendent and his supervisory officers will have enough to do to train the newcomers and those already in the system to new work, and to educate them to larger

ideals, without having the task made unnecessarily difficult by the addition to the system of those who have no real place there.

Just how far a superintendent can go in guarding this entrance to the work of his schools will vary much in different communities. In some the salaries paid will be so low that trained teachers from the outside cannot often be attracted to the service, and the home girls accordingly come to expect the vacant positions as soon as they have finished the high-school course. In other communities the salaries may be high enough, but the community ideals for public education are low, there are no proper standards set for entering on teaching in the schools, and the board of education has never attempted to change conditions by setting standards which ought to have been enforced. In still other communities good salaries and good educational and professional standards, strictly enforced, make the work of selecting new teachers an easy matter.

Fundamental principles of action. One of the first steps in improving conditions surrounding the selection and retention of teachers is to establish rather clearly, in the minds of the board and the community generally, certain fundamental principles of action which relate to the work of the schools. These may be stated, briefly, as follows:

1. Schools have been ordered established by the State for the education of the children of the State, and each child in the community is entitled to as good an education and as good teachers as the community can afford.
2. Only the best education within the means of the community should be provided, and this can be the case only when the teachers and supervisors employed are the best it is possible to obtain with the money at hand.
3. The schools exist, in no sense, to afford places for teachers. No one is entitled by right to a teacher's position, except on the one basis of being the best-prepared and the most profes-

sionally in earnest teacher available. In no way should the schools be made local family affairs, or used for local charitable, political, social, or religious purposes.

4. The question of where a teacher comes from is absolutely irrelevant. "Home girls" have no prior claim to the teaching positions, and, if they desire to teach in the schools, they should be required to make a preparation the equal of that of the best of the applicants from elsewhere.
5. Teachers within the system must keep themselves professionally alive and render good community service as a condition to the retention of their places.
6. While any one may file an application for a position, the board should reserve the right of passing over any or all applicants, and of inviting specially competent teachers from elsewhere to fill positions, even though such have filed no formal applications.
7. The continual selection of teachers who have had little or no educational experience outside of the city or of the immediate community tends to result in an inbreeding process which is inimical to the best interests of the children in the schools. A certain percentage of new blood from time to time is desirable and should be drawn into the system from abroad.

To establish such principles of action may require time and tact and community education, but their final establishment is of fundamental importance to the welfare of the schools. In establishing such principles in the mind of a community the superintendent of schools has a large part to play and renders an important service.

Standards which should prevail. Another step in improving the conditions surrounding the selection of teachers is to get certain definite standards of competency formulated and adopted by the board of education. Such formulated standards give both the board and the superintendent a foundation to stand upon, and automatically eliminate the most poorly prepared of the applicants. The standards which ought to prevail generally in city school systems may be stated, briefly, as follows:

1. No one should be considered for a position as a teacher in a kindergarten or of a special subject or type of instruction who has not been graduated from a four-year high school, or equivalent institution, and in addition presents evidence of having made satisfactory special preparation in a teacher-training institution, as certified to by diplomas or other credentials.
2. No one should be considered for a position in an elementary school who has not been graduated from a four-year high school, or equivalent institution, and, in addition, been graduated from a normal school or teachers college.
3. No one should be considered for a position in a junior high school who has not, in addition to the requirements for an elementary-school position, had at least two to three years of work in a college or university, or, in lieu of the above, been graduated from a teachers college and made special preparation for teaching in the junior high school.
4. No one should be considered for a position in a high school who has not been graduated from a college or university of standing, and who has not made special preparation to teach the line of educational work for which the candidate applies.
5. Before final election each candidate should file with the superintendent of schools:
 - (a) Evidence of the possession of a valid teacher's certificate of the proper grade, or credentials which will entitle the candidate to such.¹
 - (b) A certificate from the health supervisor of the city schools, if there be such an officer employed, and from a local physician designated and paid by the board of education, in case no health supervisor is employed, stating that the candidate has been examined by him and found to be

¹ In some cities the superintendent of schools is, or forms a part of, the examining committee which certifies all teachers for the schools of the city. As a certificate to teach is academic in its nature, being based on the satisfactory completion of certain training or the satisfactory passing of certain examinations, it should be considered largely as a state authorization of employment and the payment of school funds to the holder. This is essentially a state or county function, and should be so handled. The employing and certificating functions should be separate, and the superintendent should not be subjected to the double local and personal pressure to certify as well as to employ.

mentally sound and free from defects of hearing or contagious disease, and of sufficiently sound bodily vigor to undertake the work of instruction in the schools.¹

6. The superintendent also should be satisfied that the applicant is of high personal character, free from immoral habits, and likely to exert a good influence over pupils.

In a small city, in which the above principles of action and standards for the employment of teachers prevail, the superintendent of schools will not find the selection of good teachers and principals a difficult matter if the salary schedule is the equal of that of surrounding cities. If the salary schedule is much lower, or if low standards as to employment are the rule, he will have continual difficulty in securing the kind of teachers he wants. One of his important services, then, in the education of his board and the community will be to try to bring about better conditions surrounding entrance to and pay for the work of instruction.

Methods of selecting teachers. The usual method by which the teacher problem is handled in most of our smaller cities is that by which the board of education, working largely through a committee on teachers, works in coöperation with the superintendent of schools in the selection and retention of teachers. If the superintendent is a man of good judgment — fair, honest, and knows what he wants — he can have his way, in most cases. Honest and well-meaning boards tend to depend upon his judgment, and to follow his advice. In the smaller cities this is often not a bad plan to follow, the superintendent gradually building up his strength until the board virtually turns such matters over to him to handle.

¹ In the case of persons so distant as to make such a requirement before election an unnecessary hardship, this requirement might be temporarily waived and the candidate elected, subject to such an examination before beginning work. A certificate from a health director in another city might also, in special cases, be accepted.

The chief difficulty with the method lies in the fact that boards change rapidly, and the power of the superintendent one year may be entirely replaced by committee control a few years later. The matter is of such fundamental importance to the successful conduct of the schools that the superintendent should be guaranteed, by general state law, certain legal rights in the matter of the nomination of teachers.

No one can be more interested in securing the best teachers available than is the superintendent of schools; no one knows the needs of positions better than he; no one is likely to be able to discriminate better as to preparation, professional attitude, and adaptability than is he; and no one is less likely to engage in nepotism or politics or to be influenced by pull than he. He will from time to time make some mistakes, to be sure,¹ but he will make a much smaller number than will teachers' committees or boards of education. Of almost equal importance with good selections, in the case of new teachers, will be the maintenance of as high professional standards as the salary schedule will permit, and the effect on the teachers in the schools of this concentration of authority in professional hands.

Right rules of action. The board, as a representative of the people in the control of the schools, should have the right to approve or disapprove of the superintendent's selections, though without the right of initiating substitute appointments themselves. The following principles of action covering the matter represent conditions which ought to prevail:

¹ The number of mistakes will be reduced if the superintendent develops a systematic plan for rating applicants, both as to their training and credentials and the personal interview. Impressions and emotional reactions are somewhat systematized and reduced to near their proper place when a rating form is used. See the proposed plan given further on, on page 388.

1. The superintendent of schools should nominate all teachers, principals, supervisors, and assistant superintendents, in writing, to the board of education for election or for promotion. In the case of elementary-school teachers the election should be to a position in the schools, all assignments to positions being left to the superintendent.
2. The board may either confirm or disapprove his nominations but should have no power of substituting other names of its own choice.¹
3. In case any nomination is disapproved, the superintendent should then nominate a new person for the position.
4. The board should be permitted to elect, without such nomination, only in case the superintendent refuses to make a nomination.
5. The members of the board of education should refer all applicants to the superintendent of schools, and refuse to discuss positions with them. To this end the board should announce that, by rule, it has given the power of nomination to the superintendent, and that the members do not desire applicants or their friends to visit them on the matter.
6. In a city where a competitive examination system is in use, the board should refuse to see applicants or their friends individually, and should announce that the attempt so to visit them will be regarded as unprofessional conduct, and will prejudice the applicant's chances of securing a position.

Bases for selecting teachers. It is well for the superintendent of schools to have some system of rating applicants, by which he can defend his selections should they be called in question. Certain elements should enter into the formation of judgments, and such should be given proper weight. These should include:

1. Professional preparation and experience. A low grade being

¹ In the *Report of the Chicago Educational Commission* (p. 45), it was recommended that the superintendent make all appointments, promotions, transfers, and dismissals of teachers, reporting each action to the board of education, and that his action "shall stand as final, unless disapproved by a majority vote of all the members thereof, not later than the second meeting after the report is made." For a quite large city this would be a desirable plan to follow.

given for the minimum preparation and experience required by the rules, or for too much experience, or for experience under poor conditions, and increasing for larger preparation and valuable experience, up to a certain maximum grade. (For example, 0 to 25.)

2. Evidence as to professional success. No general letters of recommendation to be considered. Candidates to submit a complete statement of teaching experience, with names of persons engaged in educational work who can speak as to their training and teaching success. From these, or others, confidential letters to be obtained,¹ and the evidence rated. This rating may also be based, wholly or in part, on seeing the candidate at work in a schoolroom. (For example, 0 to 35.)
3. Personality and adaptability to the work of instruction. Based on a personal interview,² and comprehending such items as physique, sound nervous system,*good bodily control, voice, manner, manners, use of English, accuracy as to facts and in judgment, disposition, sense of humor, sincerity, energy, optimism, poise, and professional attitudes. (For example, 0 to 25.)
4. Physical examination by the health supervisor, or by a designated physician, and covering both physical and mental health. (For example, 0 to 15.)

A combination of these ratings by the superintendent, or by the superintendent and say two of his assistants, should show something as to the relative rank of the candidates.³ From such data a ranked eligible list for each type of school or position can be prepared, and from this list selections for nomination can be made.

¹ For this purpose a printed form letter should be used, and much care should be used in its preparation. Definite and pertinent questions should be asked, and some opportunity for rating the applicants on a number of points should be given.

² Again it is desirable to have a form for use in recording data, after the interview and while impressions are fresh, this form to be filed with the applicant's papers. A photograph also should be filed.

³ An intelligence test also is employed, in some places, though usually it is used as corroborative evidence only, and is not added into the record. In general, the genius is not desired, and methods of selection have gener-

The competitive examination. In large school systems, where the number of applicants and vacancies are both large, a fifth element often is introduced, namely, a competitive professional examination,¹ and this, too, is given its proper rating. The ratings earned under each of the five heads are then added together and the candidate is given a ranking number which places him or her for the purpose of election to a teaching position.² When such a competitive system is put into use the following principles of action should prevail:

1. On the recommendation of the superintendent of schools the board should elect, from those highest on the list, and without unnecessary delay, a number equal to or nearly equal to the estimated number of new teachers needed at the beginning of the following year.
2. Further selections should be made, in each case, from the three remaining highest on the list.
3. For satisfactory cause the board may, on recommendation of the superintendent, subsequently remove any name from the numbered list, or pass over the name temporarily.
4. Position on the list automatically to end after one, or one and a half years, as may be most desirable.

ally tended to overemphasize keenness and intellectual attainments, rather than those substantial qualities so valuable in the teacher of youth.

¹ This examination is not for purposes of certification, but is professional in its nature. To enter it the candidate should hold or have credentials for a legal certificate, valid in the city for the kind of position for which application is made. The examination should offer the candidate the choice of a certain number of questions, say five, to be selected from a list of say ten, and dealing more or less directly with the problems of instruction in the schools.

² For example, suppose a candidate's average for all points was 87.3 per cent, and this placed the candidate No. 62 for an elementary-school position, out of 85 candidates. Suppose also that the city needed from 60 to 70 teachers a year, about 40 to 45 in September, and the remainder during the year. Such a candidate would better hold her present position until January, and then could hardly expect more than a call to the substitute list. A candidate whose number was 20 could expect election to a position at once.

In giving such competitive examination the written test should involve enough questions and enough choice to give a candidate a chance to show what professional conceptions he or she has, and the personal examination should be long enough and intimate enough to enable the authorities to measure the candidate properly.¹

Electing applicants vs. hunting teachers. One of the best features of the competitive-examination plan is that teachers from the outside are placed on a plane of equality with the home girls in the matter of securing positions. Personal merit now counts instead of personal pull, and the result under such a system, if the salary schedule warrants, is to draw into the city the best teachers in that part of the State. Where the superintendent has full power to nominate all teachers, and makes an effort to search out good teachers elsewhere, the entrance is almost equally easy to competent teachers from the outside.²

¹ The personal examination need not necessarily be taken at the same time as the other tests, but might be given at any time. In a large city a special examination board, consisting of two assistant superintendents and three principals, might be created to meet candidates any Saturday morning, during certain months. The average rating of the five could be filed as the personal examination rating. Another plan, for a large city school system, is to place an assistant superintendent at the head of a Division of Personnel, and give him charge of the selection, assignment, and supervision of new teachers.

² Superintendent Carr, in an address before the National Education Association (*Proceedings*, 1905, p. 183), laid down the following rules for increasing the efficiency of our public school work:

1. Create a greater public desire for good teaching by demonstrating the difference between the counterfeit and the genuine article.
2. Break down the Chinese walls which seem to surround many towns and cities, and employ good teachers wherever they may be found.
3. Eliminate politics, nepotism, favoritism, and the whole brood of like *isms* from the management of school affairs.
4. Magnify the office of teacher.
5. Make the tenure of office for good teachers absolutely secure; absolutely insecure for poor ones.

This is as it should be. A city has so much money to spend for teachers to teach its children, and it should spend this money so as to get the best educational results. To establish a good salary schedule, and then limit competition to home girls, is to waste money. If good salaries are to be paid the market should be wide, and the offerings should be looked over carefully. This involves the hunting of teachers, instead of sitting down and waiting for applicants to appear.

In the smaller cities, in particular, it should be made one of the superintendent's functions to hunt up good teachers, investigate them, and be ready to nominate them to the board, as needed. Most school boards are reluctant to give the superintendent such authority, though few things that they could do would do so much for the improvement of the schools.¹

2. *The tenure of teachers*

The usual plan. It once was customary to engage teachers for only a single term, the school year being divided into two or three terms. In a few scattered localities this plan is still followed, but in most communities election for the school year is the plan now most commonly in use. Not only has election for a full year been authorized, but, so thoroughly has the annual conception as to schools been established, that our state laws have also commonly forbidden contracts extending beyond the close of the official

6. Promote for efficiency; dismiss for inefficiency.

7. Protect professional teachers from ruinous competition with non-professionals.

8. Pay teachers in proportion to the service rendered.

¹ Quite a number of our cities have changed their rules so as to provide for the delegation of this authority; a number of bills to this effect have been introduced into recent legislatures; and Ohio has so provided for its cities by general state law.

school year.¹ Still more, school-board rules not infrequently require all teachers to file annual written application for the retention of their positions, and each spring the formal annual election of teachers for the ensuing twelve months is the chief educational event of the year. Some of the most disgraceful occurrences associated with the administration of public education in our cities have taken place in connection with these annual elections of teachers.²

Each year, where such conditions prevail, the teaching force is overhauled by the board of education, formal conferences are held between the board or its teachers' committee and the principals of the schools, written charges are filed, formal hearings in special cases are sometimes held, teachers are kept in a condition of worry for weeks, and the board finally, after a great show of activity, drops a small number of teachers from the schools and elects others to their places.

Not infrequently much injustice is done in these annual elections of teachers. Sometimes the first notice a teacher has that her work has not been satisfactory is when she reads in the morning paper that some one else has been elected to the position she has held. Teachers, too, some-

¹ In a few States a longer tenure is now permitted. In Massachusetts, for example, teachers who have served one year in a town or city may be elected "at the pleasure of the school committee." A number of special city charters elsewhere have made provision for similar indefinite tenure after a satisfactory probationary period.

² See Miss Salmon's article for many concrete cases. Also see an article in the *Educational Review* (vol. 25, pp. 538-39), entitled "What ought not to be possible." It is true, on the other hand, that in some cities working under the annual reelection plan the teachers give little thought to the retention of their positions, reelection being a mere formality, and every satisfactory teacher knowing that retention is certain. Where such conditions prevail there has usually been a long period of community and school-board education as to the purpose of public education, and the politician has been replaced by the superintendent in the selection and retention of teachers.

times are dropped over the protest of the principal and the superintendent. More commonly, however, the injustice is the other way, teachers being retained who have been recommended for dismissal by both principal and superintendent.

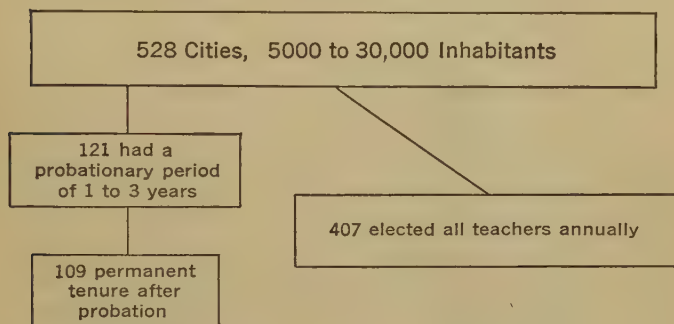


FIG. 24. TENURE OF TEACHERS IN SMALLER CITIES
(After a study by Deffenbaugh.)

ent, and others being elected whom the superintendent has opposed. In the annual scramble for places the interests of the children, for whom the school exists, are at times almost forgotten.

Effects of such a plan. Under such conditions the teachers soon recognize that their principal and superintendent are powerless to protect them, the best teachers go elsewhere or leave the work for some more attractive form of employment, while those who remain either are rendered timid, and often hesitate to do their duty for fear of giving offense to some person of influence, or they are rendered rebellious and forced into unions for protection, or to unite to secure life-tenure laws. The result is a condition of unrest in the school system which is not good for the schools, and not infrequently legislation which is inimical to their proper progress. If we add to the above conditions a system of super-

vision which is inspectional rather than professionally helpful, is characterized by a lack of leadership and inspiration to effort, and a rigid, somewhat uniform, and sometimes senseless series of requirements for all, we get a situation which serves to keep teachers in a state of nervous tension which is most irritating.

This condition is in part a tradition from early times, and in part the result of a board of rapidly changing laymen attempting to exercise professional functions. They have not the professional insight to enable them to see far enough to plan and to carry out a consistent educational policy for the schools; they lack standards for professional competency; they are too subject to pressure; and in their official actions they are usually vacillating and uncertain. It is not an uncommon thing for a board of education, after much talk about the importance of efficient service, to drop twenty to thirty teachers, and then later, when the relatives, friends, and newspapers begin a defense of those dropped, to reinstate all those for whom the greatest pressure has been exerted.¹

The result of such conditions has been that the teachers in a number of our cities have stopped such proceedings by going to the legislature and securing general or special laws giving them virtual life tenure. In large part the teachers have been driven to this by the incompetence and injustice of school boards in handling the matter of appointments, though undoubtedly the desire to escape from the recent pressure for personal improvement has also been an actuating motive with some.

Results under life-tenure laws. Within recent years,

¹ True, a good superintendent, vested with power, would in some cities at first remove more teachers than the board does, but this would be because the board has for long elected persons not fitted to the service, and has not insisted on the maintenance of professional standards by those in service.

in response to an organized pressure coming from teachers, a number of States have enacted general state-wide tenure laws, giving all teachers permanent tenure after a short probationary period. True there usually is a provision in these laws that teachers still may be dismissed, after a public trial, for immorality, incompetency, insubordination, or willful neglect of duty, but practically no teachers are so dismissed in cities having this life-tenure plan. Formal written charges must be filed, notices of trial served, and the person charged may be represented by attorneys. Nominally it is a trial of the teacher against whom charges have been filed, but in reality it is always the superintendent and the principal who are put on trial.

Often the publicity and the personalities of the trial ¹ leave the teachers and the public in no good frame of mind toward the schools, and the damage done by the public trial and the newspaper notoriety is often not repaired for months, and sometimes for years to come. Any attorney, without difficulty, can create a bad situation for the superintendent and the school board at such a trial. Parents, whose sympathies have been worked upon, are summoned in numbers to testify for the teacher; the superintendent and the principal who testify against the teacher are bullied and grilled; and the board, in its efforts to protect witnesses against a browbeating lawyer and to bring the hearing to a conclusion, can be led into technical errors during the trial, and on these an appeal to the courts can be based, in case the board dismisses the teacher, with the practical certainty that the courts will regard the preponderance of common evidence and the technical flaws as more important than the professional evidence submitted and the interests of the

¹ See "Judging the Competency of Teachers"; in *School Review*, vol. 30, pp. 3-6. (June, 1922.) Gives the gist of the evidence at the trial of three teachers in Fresno, California, and the writer's conclusions as to the dispute.

children in the schools. The almost certain result is a legal reinstatement, with full back pay. The result on the schools is thoroughly vicious.¹

Effect of life tenure on the schools. That all teachers who are reasonably efficient at the time a life-tenure law is enacted will continue to be so ten or fifteen years in the future, any one who has had much to do with teachers or who understands human nature knows will not be the case. Most teachers keep themselves alive and growing, even under adverse conditions, but there are others who render their best service when under the influence of a constant but gentle spur. Such is only human nature, and teachers are no exceptions to this rule. For certain teachers, one of the surest means for producing inefficiency is to take away this constant incentive to growth, activity, and personal endeavor by granting them life tenure after a somewhat limited service. The effect also is demoralizing to other teachers in the schools.²

If our purpose is to develop a self-satisfied and an unprogressive teaching force, and eventually to turn education in America, for those who can afford it, over to the private and parochial schools to handle, leaving our public schools to minister to the needs only of the poorer and more ignorant classes, then too easy and too early life tenure for teachers and principals is one of the surest means for doing this. So large and so important a public business as education —

¹ San Francisco forms a splendid illustration of this situation. There the courts reinstated teachers, dismissed after trial, with such regularity that both the board and the superintendent practically gave up all attempts at bringing charges against teachers. A trial of a teacher there on charges of incompetency has not been held in a quarter of a century.

² See "Effects of Permanent Tenure on School Efficiency"; in *Educational Review*, vol. 66, pp. 285-86. (December, 1923.) See also article on Portland (Oregon) experience with a permanent-tenure law, and efforts to revise it, in *School Review*, vol. 29, pp. 9-10. (June, 1921.)

where personal growth is so necessary to meet changing needs — cannot be successfully conducted on such a basis of employment. Life tenure for all efficient teachers there should be, but it should come as a deserved reward for years of faithful and efficient service, and not as a guaranteed legislative right to all after a few years of teaching in the schools.

A middle ground. Between these two extremes lies a middle ground which is just both to teachers and to the schools, and that is indefinite tenure after a sufficiently long period of probationary service. When a new teacher enters the service of the city, in any capacity, he or she should be under observation for a number of years, varying somewhat with different teachers and different positions, and during this time there should be annual reappointments, on the recommendation of the superintendent. After this probationary period has been successfully passed, the teacher should then either be reelected for some long period, say three to five years, or placed on indefinite tenure.¹ Under the former the position would be guaranteed for the period stated, subject to reconsideration at the end of each such period; under the latter the annual elections would cease, the teacher being merely continued in the service from year to year without any action on either side, and until such time as the board, for cause, and upon the recommendation of the superintendent, should see fit to terminate the contract.

This right to terminate the contract for cause is an important right, and should not be denied to school authorities. To deny it is to say that the teachers' places are more important than the educational rights of the children. No superintendent who is wise will desire to dismiss many teachers or principals. If a teacher or principal will coöper-

¹ This question is considered further in Chapter XX, under Salaries, as pay, promotion, and tenure should be somewhat closely related.

ate it is easier to educate them than to dismiss them, and far more pleasant. If superintendents were given legal control of the selection and designation for retention of all teachers, so that boards of education and their committees were deprived of all powers in the matter except the approval or the disapproval of the superintendent's recommendations, the question of the dismissal of teachers would, in most communities, occupy a less important position. Still, good teachers do not always continue to be good, and an occasional removal will need to be made for the welfare of the service.¹

Terminating the contract. The notice of dismissal should in itself be given under certain quite definite conditions, which are just to both sides. In the first place, no teacher should be liable to a termination of contract for failure to render satisfactory services who has not been notified of the deficiencies, and given an opportunity and reasonable assistance to remedy them. If improvement does not result, sufficient to warrant the retention of the teacher, the superintendent should then recommend that written notice be served on the teacher, for specified reasons, to the effect that the board desires to terminate the contract with the teacher to take effect at the close of the school year. If the board approves the notice should be given to the teacher, and not later than the last day the schools are in session during the school year, and when so served the contract with such

¹ "The removing power is of more importance than the appointing power. Appointees must be tested. There is no official power of divination in the choice of subordinates. Failures are conspicuous in every business, public and private, large and small, in making the first choice. Personal elements are often more potent than mental ability. Scholarship is not everything. Certification may cover, but not eradicate, sins. Therefore, whether this appointing power remains where it is now so jealously guarded, or is subjected to various experiments, the ultimate reform must take care of the removing power, as to which our school systems are lamentably weak." (J. C. Hendrix, in *Educational Review*, vol. 3, p. 262.)

teacher terminates at the end of such school year. For the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract the superintendent and the board should be the sole judge, without the meddling of lawyers or the interference of the courts. Teachers not so notified continue in service from year to year.¹

This middle ground is equally just to both sides, and has been adopted by a few cities not tied up by life-tenure legislation. The usual condition is not just to teachers, who have spent years in making preparation for a life work of service, and the life-tenure plan is not just to taxpayers or to the children in the schools. The latter certainly have rights, as well as the teachers. The middle ground gives practically life tenure to every worthy teacher and school officer, but merely reserves to the board of control for the schools, acting on the recommendation of their chief executive officer, and only after helpful advice has failed to bring the desired improvement, the right quietly to remove from the schools those who should not be there. To say that a school board has such power by trial, under the life-tenure laws, is to cherish a delusion. The machinery for such action is of course provided, but the difficulties in the way are such that it seldom if ever can be carried to a successful conclusion. In addition, the notoriety and the bitterness engendered by such public trials is demoralizing to the schools, and should be avoided by both sides in the interests of the children and the good name of the schools.

Handling the tenure problem. With the life-tenure movement growing in the different States, and having fully arrived in a number of them, the problem of how to deal with

¹ Teachers who do not desire to retain their positions should, in turn, notify the superintendent in writing not later than a certain date, to be sure of proper release. In general, though, most school superintendents are always willing to release a teacher who is offered a better position elsewhere, as soon as the position left can be properly filled.

the situation created by it is one of importance to those responsible for the conduct of the city school systems. Merely to accept the situation as final, and give up all attempts to dismiss those who are no longer efficient, is a weak way of meeting the situation. On the other hand, charges and public trials, with the consequent newspaper notoriety, is in general too costly a method to follow. A technique for handling the few situations which arise is needed by the city superintendent and his staff.

In the first place, the judgment of the principal as to every teacher in his school ought to be based on concrete evidence, and not on memory and guesses. It will be well if every superintendent requires his principals to keep some definite record of their supervisory visits to teachers, and of what suggestions and helpfulness they have themselves offered the teachers they have observed. Figure 25, giving a form of supervisory visitation record, is a good and at the same time a simple form for such use. A dozen or two of these records, for each teacher in a school, will give very definite evidence as to the general teaching success of any teacher. With a series of such records as a starting point, any teacher under serious criticism can then be visited by the superintendent and the members of his staff, records of the work seen made, and these combined with those made by the principal. If the evidence is clearly against the teacher, the facts may be presented to her and her resignation asked for; if she is unwilling to resign, charges and a trial can follow. The method can be made effective, though it may prove to be a rather disagreeable one to all parties concerned.

Another plan, and an especially effective one where indefinite tenure is employed, is not to bring charges against a teacher at first, but instead to transfer her back to probationary standing for the following year, giving her a transfer

[116-10-28-2M]

SUPERVISORY VISITATION RECORD

Teacher. Susan Dennis. Date. 10/2/28. Teacher Card No. 3.

Instruction seen. Arithmetic. Grade. 6B. General Estimate of. D.

Estimate Rating Scale:

A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Fair; D = Poor; F = Failure.

Type of Lesson: Simple problems in Arithmetic. (State text, II, 178.) Rather difficult for mental solution; too easy for written work. Excellent examples for problem-solving instruction.

Procedure: Problems had been assigned for home work. Teacher assigned problem to each pupil to put on board, and then explain to class.

Good Points: Order, system, and good management.

Weak Points: Entirely wrong procedure for type of problems used. No attempt at problem-solving instruction. Should have had pupils read problems carefully, see what was wanted, plan the solution, and use board herself to help along thinking of the class.

Supplementary Notes: Attention of class weak, as result of poor method used.

Conference held with teacher: Yes, after school, at the office.

Suggestions made: Explained to her that, being a new teacher to our schools, she evidently did not know how we taught Arithmetic. Explained faults of lesson, but commended managerial ability. Told her how she should handle such work, and gave her Newcomb's *Modern Methods of Teaching Arithmetic* to take home and read designated chapters.

This card shown to teacher: No.

FIG. 25. A CLASSROOM SUPERVISORY-VISIT RECORD FORM

to another school, if desired. Her weaknesses must be made plain to her, and help be given her to overcome them. During the year she is kept under closer than ordinary observation, and at the end of the year she either is restored to the indefinite tenure list or dropped. This gives the teacher a year during which she virtually can be put to school again and reëducated.

Still another plan, and somewhat of an extension of the preceding one, is to designate one or more schools in the city as training schools, put over such schools principals who are especially capable in the training of teachers to teach, and then to transfer to such school or schools those teachers whom the evidence of principals and supervisors indicates as weak. In such schools a form of normal training would be carried on, with the idea of making a reasonably good teacher out of every possible case. If this cannot be done, then a resignation should be asked for, and the matter put through to a conclusion.

Supervisory officers and tenure. Principals of schools,¹ supervisors of special subjects, and assistant superintendents of schools should be given the same tenure as teachers — that is, indefinite tenure. Any efficient supervisory officer usually will have no difficulty in maintaining his position under such tenure. When we pass to the superintendent of schools, however, the conditions of tenure, in the interests of efficient service, should be somewhat different.

A superintendent stands for a quite different quality of service from that rendered by a teacher, and to a large degree from that rendered by a principal or a special supervisor. He is the manager of the business, and as such it is primarily his work to plan and to lead. At times he must

¹ A school principal without tenure where all his teachers have it is in a serious predicament, being, as it were, between the upper and the nether millstone.

direct, at times he must show backbone in resisting improper plans and people, and occasionally he must put his back against the wall and fight. He ought not to be a pugnacious individual, but he will not be true to the interests he serves if he is not willing to stand firmly for right principles of action in school affairs. A superintendent in a modern city must belong to the vertebrate, and not to the jelly-fish, class. To enable him to stand by his guns when submission or retreat would be shameful, he needs protection from flank attacks, so that those who would indirectly beat him down in his efforts to protect the educational interests of the children under his care may be made to fight him in the open and face to face.

The two flank movements usually made by boards of education, in the process of reducing a superintendent of schools to submission, are to attack his tenure of office and his salary. To prevent the first of these flank attacks, a superintendent of schools, after possibly a trial period of one year, should be elected for certain definite periods and covering a reasonably long time — four or five years are perhaps the most desirable terms — and during such term of office the board of education should not be permitted to dismiss him except for serious cause,¹ and then only by a practically unanimous vote (four fifths or five sevenths, for example). Neither should the board be permitted to reduce his salary at all during his term of office. These safeguards give the superintendent freedom from a flank attack along these lines for a certain definite period of time, during which he can plan and carry out a definite educational policy.

¹ It is perhaps desirable to give a board of education the right to remove a superintendent, after trial, for immorality, incompetency, or willful neglect of duty, the deposed superintendent having, in turn, the right to appeal the decision to the chief school officer of the State, who should pass on the sufficiency of the evidence, and should have power to reinstate a superintendent unjustly dismissed.

No better method for reducing a superintendent to subjection could be devised than an annual reelection, along with the teachers, or a longer tenure coupled with an annual salary determination. These are the methods still employed by boards of education, all over the United States where state laws or city charter provisions do not prevent, to enable them to retain their control of the schools. Under the plan suggested above, at the end of such a four- or five-year period, the superintendent should expect the results of his work to justify his actions, and should be willing to have his services reviewed and reappraised. In a position where so much depends upon the efficiency of the individual, and where efficiency at forty may so easily change to inefficiency at fifty or fifty-five, a periodical review of a superintendent's services is very desirable. Life tenure for superintendents would be an even more serious mistake than for teachers.

Assistant superintendents. As was pointed out in Chapter XVII, assistant superintendents bear a particularly confidential relation to the superintendent. Upon their loyalty, efficiency, and thorough coöperation in carrying through educational policies much of a superintendent's success depends. They represent his cabinet, and he should have large powers of choice in their selection. To elect a new superintendent to represent a new educational policy, and then to weight him down with a body of assistant superintendents who represent an old and displaced régime or an antiquated conception of education, is something like tying a millstone around his neck and then expecting him to swim. In the interests of efficient service an assistant superintendent should be on the same indefinite tenure as previously described for teachers, so far at least as the assistant superintendency is concerned, being subject to reassignment to a subordinate supervisory position, on the recommendation

of the superintendent, at the close of any school year, if in the judgment of the superintendent the assistant is not satisfactory for the type of service desired. A progressive and capable superintendent cannot carry out a progressive educational policy if his chief lieutenants are weak, reactionary, or disloyal, and permanency of tenure should not be expected in such positions.

Assignment of the teaching staff. In all elections of members of the teaching corps the election should be to the educational department, and not to a specific position, unless the superintendent should desire so to specify in recommending the election. In any case all assignments to position, and all transfers from position to position, if the same do not involve a change in salary, should be wholly in the hands of the superintendent of schools. He should know or be able to find out, and better than any one else, the peculiar demands of the different positions and the peculiar strength or weakness of individuals, and he should be able to effect a nicety of adjustment of teachers and principals to positions such as no board of education or teachers' committee can possibly do. All promotions within the staff also should be made, by the board, only on his recommendation. Also on his recommendation, and for proper reasons, the board should have the right to transfer teachers or supervisory officers to less responsible positions, and carrying a smaller salary than that previously paid.¹

¹ No business corporation could pay dividends if it adhered to the principle, followed by most of our schools, of always paying a teacher or a principal the highest salary they have worked up to in the school system, regardless of the service rendered. Only the very poorest, the dishonest, or the profligate are discharged by most corporations, but men are frequently transferred to positions carrying less responsibility and salary, and others are put in their places. The efficient are promoted and the inefficient are reduced. Such a plan applied to teachers would enable a superintendent to retain some teachers whom otherwise he ought to displace entirely.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How are teachers selected in cities that you know?
2. Should the application blank, which candidates are asked to fill out for the city educational authorities, ask for the religious affiliation or church preference of the candidate? Why?
3. Why do low standards in the selection of teachers tend to lower the professional tone of a teaching force?
4. Do such also tend to keep down wages?
5. Why is selection from the list of applicants likely to be less desirable than the hunting of teachers?
6. What would you think of a superintendent having a form of letter, which he sends to good teachers elsewhere, inviting them to make application for a position in his city?
7. Why is a low salary schedule nearly always associated with low professional standards in the teaching force? Under what conditions might such not be the case?
8. Do a high salary schedule and an efficient teaching force go together? Why?
9. Assume that you have just been elected superintendent of schools in a community where the standards for selection and retention of teachers have always been low. What steps would you take, and about how long would you expect it to take you, to educate the board and community up to proper principles of action:
 - (a) If the community is poor and can pay only relatively small salaries?
 - (b) If the community can afford good salaries?
10. Is the daughter of a large taxpayer any more entitled to a position than the daughter of one who pays little or no taxes?
11. Assuming that "home girls" have no more right to positions than girls from the outside, are there good reasons for choosing such if they are the equal in training of outside teachers?
12. In quite a large city, do you think it desirable to select all teachers for the elementary schools from those educated and trained in the city?
13. Why is a physical examination and a health certificate a desirable requirement on the part of teachers? Should janitors also be required to comply with such a requirement?
14. Would it also be desirable to require teachers in service to take such an examination either (a) periodically, or (b) on

request? Should teachers and other employees of the school department have the privilege of such an examination, at their own request, from the school health officer?

15. Would the recommendation of the Chicago Educational Commission as to the power of the superintendent to appoint and report, and the board to veto, be a better plan than the board's approval or disapproval of the superintendent's nomination, in the case of teachers, principals, supervisors, etc., in (a) a large city? (b) a smaller city?
16. Compare college presidents and city superintendents in the matter of the selection and appointment of teachers. Compare college teachers with public-school teachers in the matter of tenure.
17. Why is it desirable that candidates for positions should not visit school-board members? If the school board or its teachers' committee desire to see candidates, how should it be done?
18. Do you know any cities where such standards of action in the matter of the selection of teachers prevail?
19. In how small a city, and under what conditions, would you think it desirable to introduce the competitive examination for applicants for teachers' positions?
20. What are some of the disadvantages of a competitive examination, on fixed dates, in all but the largest school systems?
21. Would the competitive-examination idea be applicable to high-school or special teachers? Why?
22. Does the argument for indefinite tenure for teachers appeal to you as sound? If not, why not?
23. Is it desirable to reinstate a teacher who has once been dismissed?
24. Why, after a teacher has proved his or her efficiency by five years of useful service, is it unsafe to assume that such person will be an efficient teacher after a lapse of fifteen years?
25. Is the rule that when a woman marries her position is automatically vacated a desirable rule? Why?
26. Is the rule that teachers must reside in the city where they teach a legitimate requirement? Why?
27. What reasons do you see for so many promising superintendents declining in efficiency after they have passed fifty years of age?
28. What consultative rights, in the matter of the selection, assignment, or transfer of teachers, should be accorded to

- (a) The principal of an elementary school?
- (b) The principal of a high school?
- (c) The head of a department in a high school?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Obtain the printed statement of conditions for application of a number of city school systems, and determine the standards set up.
2. Look up and report on the nature of and the estimated efficiency of the competitive-examination system for selecting teachers, as employed in any city for which you can obtain information.
3. Almack and Lang, p. 231, lay down what they consider the essentials of a sound tenure system for teachers. Examine and report on this.
4. On the pasted-in sheet, entitled "Tabular Statement of State Teacher Tenure Laws," to be found in the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association entitled *The Problem of Teacher Tenure* (vol. 2, no. 5, November, 1924), analyze the different state tenure laws digested there, selecting the points of strength and weakness of each, and see how far each conforms to the principles laid down in this chapter.
5. In investigating the question of teacher tenure, a committee of the National Education Association listed 15 causes for dismissal, and took a vote of a large number of teachers, administrators, and laymen on each. Examine the results (*Research Bulletin*, vol. 2, no. 5, November, 1924), and report on what unity and differences of opinion the votes show.
6. Investigate the appointment plans presented by Ballou, and report on the ones suggested by him.
7. Marriage as a cause for the dismissal of a teacher. See especially: Brubacher, J. S., *School and Society*, vol. 26, pp. 428-35, Edwards, J. N., *Elementary School Journal*, vol. 25, pp. 692-95, Jarvis, Paul G. H., *School and Society*, vol. 24, pp. 153-58, 193-98.
8. Read all the articles and reports listed on teacher tenure, and particularly the N.E.A. Reports of 1927 and 1928 (see Hunter), and then formulate your conclusions on the subject.

PROBLEMS

1. Draw up a form of application blank for candidates to fill out who apply for a position in your city, indicating in such what information you would desire to have them give you.
2. Draw up a form of inquiry blank such as you would like to use in looking up their references, and writing to others about their training and success.
3. Assume that the board of education employing you has begun to think of the desirability of turning over to you the duty of sorting out and nominating all teachers for election, and has asked you to make a report to the board, setting forth the arguments for the proposal and against the present plan. Draw up such a report, in the proper form, and show on what basis you would propose to sort out and nominate teachers.
4. Assuming that you have been superintendent at the city of X for some years, that the board of education and the community have come to have confidence in your judgment, fairness, and professional skill, and that the board has finally become convinced of the desirability of revising its rules relating to the employment and tenure of teachers so as to bring them into harmony with your recommendations, which we will assume to be those of this chapter. The board, by resolution, directs you to so revise that division of the rules and regulations and to submit your revision to them for approval. Draw up such a revision.
5. Make up a form which you would use in grading the probable efficiency of applicants for positions in your city, and covering both credentials as to preparation and teaching experience, and personal characteristics and the result of the personal interview.

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CHAPTER XIX

TRAINING AND SUPERVISION OF TEACHERS

WHATEVER plan or plans are employed in selecting teachers, and whatever demands as to training and experience are made of candidates for positions, teachers entering the force need to be stimulated to improve their teaching technique, and the classroom work which they do needs helpful professional supervision. These two features of the teaching problem will form the subject matter of this chapter.

1. *The training of teachers*

Leavening the teaching corps. The corps of teachers with which a school system starts each year ought, taken as a whole, to be an improvement over the corps of the preceding year, but this desirable condition cannot be unless the new teachers entering the force rank higher in training, teaching skill, and personal culture than the average of the teachers previously in service. Whatever plan is devised for selecting teachers, it is important that the incoming teachers should contribute something to the leavening of the whole corps. A superintendent ought, each year, to be able to feel that, in consequence of the good selections made, the teachers entering his schools are an improvement over those of previous years in education, training, and teaching skill. Such a condition materially lightens the duties of the supervisory corps, because the constant introduction of such a stream of new teachers brings new ideas, new enthusiasm, and new standards of educational and professional preparation to all.

To this end, as was pointed out in the last chapter, good

standards for academic and professional preparation should be established by the rules and be insisted upon for all. With the recent multiplication of good normal schools in our different American States, the evolution of many two-year normal schools into three- and four-year teachers colleges, the increase in the number of colleges and universities offering both academic and professional training, and the increasing percentage of trained teachers available, it has become relatively easy for a city, which has anything like a satisfactory salary schedule and working conditions, to make and to enforce good academic and professional standards.¹

As was stated also in the last chapter, it is an important part of the education of the candidate to have gone away from home for the professional preparation and early classroom experience. It is a valuable element in the training of any one to go away from home, to come in contact with people of different ideas and ideals, to learn new ways and new methods of doing things, and to have one's horizon enlarged by rubbing up against people who look at things somewhat differently from the home people. The home girl who has had such an experience will contribute much more to the strength of the school system when she enters it than the one who has never had such an experience.

The local training-school. As a means for insuring that the new teachers entering the elementary schools should have had some professional training for the work they were to do, a number of our cities, in times past, established a local city normal school or training-course, where the high-

¹ Good academic and professional standards ought to be enforced as a protection to the schools. Teaching is subject to the same economic law as regulates the price of wheat and labor, and one best means for warding off pressure from the many poorly trained is to raise standards so as to shut such applicants out, and then provide a salary schedule that will attract those with better training.

school graduates who desired to teach in the elementary schools of the city might first be given some professional preparation for the work of instruction in the schools. Most of these teachers' courses were established thirty to fifty years ago, when salaries were much lower, state training schools were much weaker, and trained teachers were much less common than is the case to-day. Many of the courses consisted very largely of practical work, the institutions having been more in the nature of apprentice schools, with only a small amount of time given to theoretical instruction.

These courses were established on the theory that if home girls only or very largely must be taken for elementary-school teachers, due either to a low salary schedule or to peculiar local conceptions as to the filling of places, the training given in such schools or classes, and the observation and assistance work in the schools, did much to offset the disadvantages occasioned by such an unsatisfactory basis of selection. In the smaller cities such courses often were defended on the ground that they are far better than nothing, and that without such a course the new teachers would enter the service without any professional training whatever.

Within recent years, due in large part to the development of good state normal schools and teachers colleges, and the increase in the number of trained teachers, there has been a marked tendency to abandon such courses in all the smaller cities, and materially to improve those in the larger ones.¹ A good teacher-training school costs money, and no city of less than 200,000 to 250,000 inhabitants² can afford to provide the material equipment or the staff necessary for such a

¹ Whereas many cities of 25,000 to 50,000 inhabitants maintained such local training courses thirty to forty years ago, but four cities of less than 50,000 inhabitants maintained such a course in 1928.

² There were, in 1920, but thirty-three cities in the United States which had 200,000 inhabitants, and but twenty-five which had 250,000.

school. No city of less than 200,000 population, too, has a yearly demand for a sufficient number of teachers ¹ to warrant the expense of preparing them, if the preparation is properly made.² Most cities now find it far better for their schools,³ and cheaper as well,⁴ to abandon all attempts to train their own teachers, to increase their salary schedules, and to try to attract to their service the best-trained teachers in the State, or in surrounding States. By following this procedure an inbreeding process ⁵ which in time saps the

¹ Such a city ordinarily will need from forty to fifty new elementary-school teachers each year, while a city of 100,000 ordinarily will not need over twenty to twenty-five new elementary-school teachers yearly. From two to four per cent will represent displacements and resignations, while growth and development of the system will be represented by not over two per cent in a city whose population is about stationary, and from six to ten per cent in a rapidly growing city. Perhaps from three to ten per cent, varying with the city, will represent the yearly demands for new elementary-school teachers.

² One trouble with many of these courses — most of them in fact — is that they give an inadequate preparation and are too easy to get through. The practice work often is so overemphasized that it becomes apprenticeship training, rather than thoughtful preparation for teaching, and the teachers turned out lack, in consequence, any fundamental philosophy for their work on which they can grow later.

³ All teachers are trained alike; all learn to do the same thing in the same way; all get the same working conceptions of the educational process. As a result, the teachers in the city system gain little by professional contact with one another, and lacking contact with teachers who have learned other ways of doing things and have different conceptions and ideals, the result is a uniformity throughout the school system which may delight the heart of an office-chair superintendent who loves uniform procedure, but which is deadening to the real life of a school system.

⁴ A city training-school ought to be as well equipped for its work as is a city high school, and ought to cost about as much to maintain. It ought to be, too, distinctively a leader in the city's educational system, setting standards, initiating new plans, trying out experiments, stimulating personal improvement, and giving tone to the whole school system of the city. Such work only a large city can provide.

⁵ Ayres says that in Springfield his staff could tell a training-class graduate by merely seeing her conduct a recitation. (*The Public Schools of Springfield, Illinois*, p. 64.)

vigor of the school system is prevented,¹ and at times a most disreputable type of petty local politics also is kept out of the school system.²

Training vs. attracting teachers. In contrast with such a procedure, our city school systems to-day, quite generally, make a deliberate attempt to hunt out promising teachers elsewhere and invite them to make application for positions. In our best-managed school systems superintendents feel authorized to look up teachers in other places, and often quite distant places, and nominate them to their boards of education for appointment. The cities which handle the selection of teachers best give large authority to their superintendents in such matters, putting the selection of teachers with them on much the same basis that college and university boards of trustees place the selection of their professors with the president of the institution. The result is that, if the salary standards and the supervisory conditions warrant, such a city can draw to it the best of the teachers-college and university graduates, within a wide radius, and thus obtain for the school system all the advantages that come from

¹ If the training-class turns out enough graduates to fill all vacancies, new teachers from the outside have practically no chance to get in. Even when the number graduated is not sufficient to fill all the vacancies, the training-class serves to establish the idea that home girls are to have the home places, and other home girls, lacking the regular training, are usually put in to supply the deficiency, on the theory that the training-school teachers, in their rounds with the apprentices, will look after them also.

² "Many a local training-school is an open door to inefficiency, and furnishes the petty politician an opportunity for putting into practice his pet theory of doing the thing that benefits the community. What he really does is to benefit a class at the expense of the entire community. . . . If there is a local training-school the pressure of local politics is likely to be so strong that a very large percentage of local people who wish to teach will be admitted to the school, and will be allowed to remain there until they graduate, and then secure positions, irrespective of their ability to do the highest grade of work. This condition of affairs is true in many cities in various parts of the United States to-day." (W. F. Gordy, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1906, p. 125.)

a variety of training and teaching experience. Cities that can offer conditions which will appeal to teachers elsewhere are extremely short-sighted to attempt to train their own teachers, and in consequence cut off the possibility of employing teachers with different points of view, and often also better teachers than they possibly can train.

Training of teachers in service. Teaching is a calling which demands continual growth on the part of those engaged in it. The advance of our schools is so rapid that teachers who do not continue to increase their capacity for service in time cease to be of large usefulness to the system. After all that the State can do to train a new teacher, even under the best of teacher-training conditions, the completion of the process must still take place in the classroom, under competent and helpful supervision. Some one must see that the teacher is applying the principles she has been taught, and that she is improving her technique with a view to becoming, if possible, a master teacher. Practice alone does not make perfect; it is practice guided by skilled supervision that is effective. The problem of training teachers in service is to a very large degree a strictly local problem.¹

Personal growth, outside of that connected with the mere technique of instruction, and often there as well, seems to be exceedingly painful to the ordinary teacher. The normal-school or teachers-college graduate, who might be expected to have a desire to continue study, often feels that her entire preparation has been made. In school

¹ Some superintendents think that the best way to lighten this load is to employ only well-trained and experienced teachers, while other superintendents prefer to select only young teachers who can be moulded to the desired point of view. Most superintendents have to take both types of teachers, and others covering the ranges in between these two points of view.

systems where the home-product idea of appointment prevails, it is often hard to induce teachers to undertake independent reading or study. Yet the remarkably rapid progress of educational theory and practice in this country cannot but mean that those who will not keep growing soon become relatively inefficient public servants.¹ The training that produced a satisfactory teacher for 1900 or 1910, or even for 1920, will not suffice for a teacher for 1930 or 1935. The teacher must know more, and her ideals for public service must have expanded along with her years of service. Teachers are in no way exempt from the same conditions which produce inefficiency in other professional workers. To insure this continual growth calls for continual personal training, and not only should a certain amount of such training be expected of and required of teachers, but certain definite premiums should be placed on

¹ Superintendent Van Sickle classifies teachers in service, who are more or less in need of further training, into the following groups (see *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1911, p. 437, for details as to each group):

1. Superior teachers, who need no other stimulation than their own ideals of excellence.
2. Teachers possessing a good degree of executive ability and adequate scholarship of the book-learning variety, but who resist change because they honestly believe the old ways are better.
3. Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill, or both, self-conscious and timid, because unacquainted with standards of work and valid guiding principles, desirous of avoiding observation, and doing their work in a more or less perfunctory and fortuitous manner.
4. Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill, or both, but not conscious of this lack and therefore unaware of any need for assistance.
5. Teachers yet in the early stages of their service. Such usually have had some professional training, and from it have gained a professional attitude. Supervision should try to get these teachers into class 1, and prevent their developing the characteristics of class 2, 3, or 4.

Teachers in classes 1, 2, and 5 are willing to have their work seen and valued by competent and trusted supervisors.

the efforts of teachers who voluntarily do more than is required.¹

The continued professional improvement of the teachers in a city school system is a matter of legitimate concern to a city superintendent of schools. Under favorable conditions the superintendent here plays in one of his happiest rôles as personnel manager, looking after the personal and professional welfare of those who work with him. His personnel work here rises to the rank of a major professional service.

Provision of helpful supervision. One of the first concerns of a superintendent of schools, in the matter of the professional growth of his teachers, is to see that close, personal, and helpful supervision of instruction is provided for them. School principals, and all other members of the supervisory staff, need to be made to feel the importance of a helpful attitude; to understand that the satisfactory supervision of classroom instruction must be a coöperative affair between teacher and supervisor; that the work of the supervisor is to diagnose difficulties and needs and to offer helpful suggestions, rather than critically to evaluate what the teacher does; and that expert technical knowledge in each subject is needed less than is that knowledge as to

¹ "The principles and practices, the theory and the art of education, are constantly undergoing, in common with all other phases of civilization, modification and development. Likewise the field of education in which instruction is given, and the habits which education seeks to form, are always changing. It is necessary, therefore, if the institution of education is to render its full service to humanity, if the public schools are to perform their full duty in the promotion of civilization, that every teacher, in so far as in his power lies, shall keep abreast of this development and change. No matter what the initial equipment of a teacher may be, he should be progressively efficient during his entire period of service. This means not that he should grow merely in those ways which are inseparably connected with his own individual experience, but rather that he should profit by the experience of the race in so far as it affects his own work." (H. Updegraff, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1911, p. 434.)

sound teaching procedures which is common to any subject or type of instruction.

Through meetings with principals and special supervisors the superintendent must impart to them his own best ideas as to the work they are to do. How to decrease their clerical and routine work, how to budget their time so as to be able to devote the needed attention to classroom supervision, how to organize and program their work, and what to do and how to do it to make schoolroom supervision helpful and constructive to and sought after by the teachers — these are some of the places where the superintendent's guiding hand and larger vision as to the work can be most profitably put to service.

Teachers' meetings. The welfare of the schools demands periodical meetings with teachers, and such are everywhere recognized as an essential element in preserving the unity of a system of schools. These meetings are needed for considering together the educational policy of the school system, for the discussion of certain phases of school work and the progress of instruction, somewhat for administrative and supervisory purposes, and for inspirational purposes. These different purposes call for school-building meetings, meetings of principals and supervisors, grade meetings, meetings of the teachers of special types of schools, and general meetings of all the teachers. A superintendent could well afford to devote two afternoons a week and one Saturday morning a month to such purposes. A few days a year could also be devoted to a general institute of all the teachers, where new ideas and new inspiration are imparted to the teaching force by carefully selected persons from the outside.¹

¹ Miss Harris, a supervisor at Rochester, New York, describes (*Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1906, p. 120) a plan followed at Rochester by means of which five one-day teachers' institutes are held with the teachers of each grade each year, using the state teachers' institute time, and reducing the teachers' meetings after school to a minimum. Such a plan is more applicable to a large city than to a small one.

The planning and direction of these different meetings will require much care and thought, if the work is to be done well, but they will well repay in results the effort spent upon them. A year's work should be outlined for each, and even a two- or three-year cycle may be planned. Each meeting should have some definite purpose, and the teachers who attend should be made to feel that the meetings are worth their time. If the superintendent is the master of his problem he will find in these meetings his own largest inspiration to effort, and he will reap returns from them in the increased ease of supervision and the more wholesome attitude of his teaching force toward their work which will well repay him for the time and energy they demand. If his school system is not too large he can, in this way, conduct a form of normal school with his teachers, enlarging their outlook, increasing their technical preparation, keeping them in touch with the best educational progress elsewhere, inspiring them to new efforts, and developing in them new ambitions to excel.

Participation in the work of the school system. In the administration of every school system there are numerous opportunities for utilizing the interest and the abilities of the teachers in constructive work. Often the final results of what the teachers work on are of less value than the education that comes to them from the work. Revision of the courses of study has, in recent years, proved to be one of the most fruitful of the participation projects. The work, with the resulting discussion, has been very conducive to professional growth. The exchange of ideas and experiences, the looking up and quoting of authorities, and the weighing of values in instruction are valuable in awakening teachers to the problems of their work and the school. There is an inspiration to further activity that comes from creative work that the passive recipient of the work of others never knows.

Elective and representative Teachers' Councils also have

been organized, in a number of cities (see Figure 20, page 268) to serve as official bodies to which superintendents may refer professional questions, and certain matters of educational policy, for consideration and opinion, and to such councils the power of initiating proposals for improvements or change also usually has been given. If a clear distinction between policy-determining and policy-executing is kept in mind, coöperation by such representative bodies may prove helpful, and stimulating to the teachers as well. Increased authority in the administration of classroom matters should be given to the teacher, and the organized opinions of the teaching body on matters relating to teaching procedures, curriculum content, school administrative and supervisory policies, working conditions, and matters relating to pupil welfare, can be made useful by a superintendent and stimulating to the professional thinking of a body of teachers. The danger always lies in that teachers' councils may try to go too far. They are advisory organizations, and the relations between them and the administration must be coöperative. There can be but one head to either a school or a school system, and ultimate responsibility for the execution of policies once decided upon must rest with that one head.¹

Professional reading and study. As an adjunct to or as a part of the meetings with teachers and principals, there should be some definite professional reading each year. This is one of the effective agencies for promoting the growth of teachers in the service, and may be carried on as a group, or by schools, grades, or in the carrying out of projects. The effect on a teaching force of a careful study each year of a

¹ While groups may help in the formulation of a policy, one executive must be responsible for determining what shall be taken up and what shall not, be the means of communication between the teachers and the school board, and be responsible for carrying any adopted policy into effect.

few good books, pertinent to the work they are doing, is cumulative, and the result over a five- or ten-year period is certain to be large. The habit it tends to establish with teachers is no small part of the benefit derived from such a practice.

It is certainly not unreasonable to expect grade and high-school teachers to read and discuss two good well-selected books of a professional nature each year, relating more or less directly to their work, nor to expect principals of schools to read half a dozen good books and some magazine articles bearing on their administrative problems. These need to be well selected, should not be the same for all in the service, should not be too difficult nor too far afield, and some options may well be allowed. Outlines for study, with pertinent and suggestive questions for thought and discussion, add to the value of such work.

State reading-circles in this country have rendered a very important service in awakening a professional attitude on the part of teachers, and the principle of the state reading-circle idea should be carried over into our city school administration. It offers a superintendent an effective means for advancing the professional knowledge and enlarging the professional insight of teachers in service. Thousands of teachers in our States have been led to read and study professional books through the state reading-circle who would never otherwise have done so, and many teachers of little or no professional training have been stimulated to undertake a course of study in some professional school.¹ The idea has made much less headway in our cities, particu-

¹ The author has stated elsewhere his belief that the chief reason why so many men from the State of Indiana have become professional leaders in education, and why so many Indiana students are found each year in the leading summer schools, is that for over forty years the teachers of the whole State have been engaged in the study of professional books under the direction of the state reading-circle board.

larly in the larger cities, but it could be and should be applied to the needs of teachers there.¹ It stimulates thinking on the problems of instruction, deepens professional insight as to the means and purposes of education, increases the effectiveness of supervision, and tends to develop a professional attitude toward the work of teaching.

Extension courses and study. Where university extension courses may be available, it is wise to encourage teachers to take part in them by reserving certain times each week when teachers will be free from any called meetings that might interfere with attendance. Courses can be arranged for, in subjects in which teachers have a real interest, and so given as to broaden the teacher's equipment for effective service and her professional outlook as well. For those who desire to do regular and systematic study during the school year, extension courses offer excellent opportunities to teachers for improvement while in service.

Summer school attendance offers another means for training teachers in service. As a means of insuring a certain amount of professional study on the part of teachers, many cities now require attendance at some summer school, on the part of the teaching corps, at least one summer in three or four. The continuity of study under propitious conditions which summer schools afford, with prepared

¹ For example, the whole field of health work in the schools has opened up so recently that only the most recent graduates of the best normal schools know anything about child hygiene or health work, yet such study is far more important in the equipment of a teacher than methods of teaching arithmetic. Within the past five years teaching how to study, and how to handle disciplinary cases, has assumed new importance. The idea of adapting work to individual needs and guiding students toward life-careers, all recent, is of much importance to upper-grade teachers. Few school principals know much about the supervision or testing of teaching, or even of the hygiene of their school plant. These are only a few of the many lines along which profitable reading and study could be conducted, in part in connection with teachers' and principals' meetings.

work and discussion, and good lectures, form a good means for warding off the onset of that "pedagogical cramp" which in time settles down over so large a proportion of our teachers.

Leaves of absence for study. The carrying along each year of certain lines of professional study with teachers also serves another purpose, in that it tends to stimulate in them a desire to undertake further systematic academic or professional preparation. To require teachers to carry on private study in academic subjects and to pass examinations on such, while engaged in teaching, is of somewhat doubtful value. It may be and often is done at the expense of the instruction in the schools. To stimulate in teachers a desire to take a year's leave of absence for travel or professional study is different in its results, and is likely to have the most favorable consequences for both teachers and the schools.¹

Many superintendents, who must be regarded as authorities, contend that, after a certain number of years of service, most teachers reach a plane where they cease to make any substantial improvement without further study and training. This point is usually placed at about the seventh or eighth year of teaching service. At this point these superintendents contend that it is of great advantage to teachers to stop and spend a year in further professional study, and to this end a few city school systems have recently provided for sabbatical leaves of absence for teachers, for pur-

¹ A few cities, notably Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and Pittsburgh, have special funds from which grants may be made to meritorious teachers to enable them to travel or study. The Indianapolis fund, though small, has rendered a very important service in developing a professional spirit among the teachers. (See Blaich, L. R., "The Gregg Scholarships in Indianapolis"; in *Elementary School Teacher*, vol. 12, pp. 461-62, June, 1912.) In Pittsburgh, the Henry C. Frick fund, up to 1927, had aided approximately 2400 teachers to study, at a total cost for aid grants of over \$200,000.

poses of travel or study.¹ Such leaves are common in colleges and universities, where professors are entitled to one year in seven free from teaching for purposes of travel or study, the institution paying them part of their salaries while absent, usually one half. Such leaves, without pay, also usually are granted to professors at any time.

These leaves of absence are granted by the colleges or universities on the theory that their gain from the plan, due to the increased efficiency of the service rendered after the professor's return, is worth more than the extra cost. If the theory that a teacher's efficiency reaches a point of diminishing returns after a certain number of years of service is sound, and there is much reason to think that it is, the same principle of leaves applied to public-school teachers ought to prove of much value to the schools.² The question of cost is likely to prevent any wide adoption of the sabbatical idea, however, for some time to come.

In any case, additional professional study along lines tending to increase classroom efficiency should be stimulated, and leaves of absence for half or full years for study should be granted to teachers, on the recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Similarly, where exchanges of teachers can be arranged by the superintendents of two cities, for a year's work under different working conditions,

¹ In 1911, but three cities — Boston, Cambridge, and Newton — had arranged for sabbatical leaves for public-school teachers. A recent study by the Research Division of the National Education Association (vol. 2, no. 4) showed thirty cities now granting half salary or more, and thirty-three others granting some pay, but less than half. New York, Chicago, Boston, Rochester, Schenectady, Troy, New Rochelle, Brookline, Gloucester, and Newton are examples of cities. For New York City plan, see *School and Society*, vol. 20, p. 808; for Rochester plan, see *Elementary School Journal*, January, 1925, p. 386; for Kansas City plan, see *Elementary School Journal*, November, 1926, pp. 164-66.

² See note on the *Report* of the Kansas City Committee on "Sabbatical Leaves for Classroom Teachers"; in *School and Society*, vol. 22, pp. 213-14. (August 15, 1925.)

these, too, should be approved as in the interests of the schools. The common practice of boards of education of refusing to grant leaves of absence to teachers for further study, thus forcing them to resign from the school system if they wish to prepare themselves for better service, has no educational foundation upon which to rest, and is based solely on the job-conception of the position of teacher in the schools.

In the next chapter the value of such additional study in estimating salary rewards will be considered.

2. The supervision of teachers

Deficient supervision. In some of our cities, it must be admitted, no problems involving the continuous education of the teaching corps, nicety of educational adjustment, nor a high degree of efficiency in the art of instruction, come in to disturb the even tenor of the educational administration. A self-satisfied and relatively stationary city of 10,000 to 30,000 inhabitants, which has long been flattered by the assurance that "its schools are among the best in the land," is very likely to produce such a condition of affairs. The school board, assisted more or less by the superintendent of schools, employs the teachers and the principals and assigns them to their positions, and each teacher and each school sinks or swims according to its own ability. New and untrained teachers are turned over to the principal of the school to "develop," while normal-school graduates are regarded as a finished product. The high school is left almost entirely to its principal, to manage as he sees fit. The superintendent is a business superintendent, a building superintendent, or an office man, who contrives to keep busy on easy work. He pays little attention to educational problems, and when he visits teachers his visits are for social purposes rather than for real supervisory service. Down to

about a certain level teachers or principals can drop without being questioned, if they are able to keep out of trouble and are loyal to authority; below that level, or if troublesome, they are dropped, usually without much or any warning.

The school system in a way slides along; home girls are awarded the places; teachers who know that things are not what they should be either leave or learn to say nothing; there is no attempt to educate the public on school matters; private and parochial schools flourish; the school board is satisfied; and the taxpayers make no complaint. Such a condition serves only to show how few people there are in such communities who possess any educational standards by which they can say that the school system is not what it ought to be. For a time, and often for a long time, a superintendent can carry out such a bluff, but sooner or later he ought and must give way to some one who can introduce a real educational administration, and who can raise the schools, and along with the schools the community conception of education, from mediocrity or less to a plane of real efficiency.

Supervision of the wrong type. A somewhat higher type of supervisory oversight, but one thoroughly wrong in principle and disastrous in its results, is one in which the superintendent is interested and efficient, but along wrong lines of action. The result is the production of a school system in which rigid uniformity is prescribed and enforced for all. The usual characteristics of such a supervisory system are rigid and uniform courses of study, usually based on definite page requirements in certain textbooks, an attempt to force all pupils through an identical course of instruction, uniform regulations as to methods of instruction and programs for work, and periodical general examinations of all classes, on questions based on the course of study and made out at the

central office. The supervision then consists largely of inspection to see that the teachers are following instructions, and are making proper progress; while the examination and tabulation of the results of the examinations, and the charting of schools and teachers as to efficiency based on the results of such periodical tests, come in as an important part of the supervisory service.

Teachers under such a system become teachers of facts and textbooks rather than of children, while the ability to discipline and to cram in information sufficiently well to make it stick until the examination period is over, together come to constitute the chief essentials of the science of education demanded of the teachers. A teaching force, under such a system of so-called supervision, naturally ceases to grow professionally or to be professionally interested in the problems of their work. Under such a system of supervision a superintendent rules by reason of the weight of his authority and the general lack of professional standards on the part of his teachers and principals, rather than because of the support and backing which comes to him from the teaching corps due to the helpfulness extended to them by intelligent supervision.

Need for helpful supervision. If the schools in any city are to render good service, there must be plenty of close, personal, and helpful supervision of the instructing corps. A superintendent of schools in a small city, and a supervisory corps in a large city, in addition to providing properly for the growth and development of the teachers in the school system by continuing their training, as has been indicated in the first part of this chapter, also must spend much time in helping them to improve themselves in the art of teaching. Composed, as the teaching forces in our American cities are, of so many women teachers who possess but the required minimum of professional training and who

expect or hope to remain in the service but a short time, the supervision of instruction attains with us an importance which it does not have in countries where teaching represents more of a life-career. Even the reasonably well-trained normal-school graduate requires much help at first to adjust herself properly to the work of a city school system, and to enable her, in the course of four or five years, to reach a maximum of efficiency with a minimum of mistakes and struggle. The teacher with no professional training naturally needs much more personal attention.

Purpose of all supervision. The purpose of all supervision should be constructive. The supervisor who goes about as an inspector, a detective, or a judge, will not render services of much value. He will never see the best work of any teacher, and the more the teacher is in need of assistance the poorer the quality of the work she will do beneath his critical eye. Neither is the dictator of much real assistance to teachers. Helpful leadership, rather than dictation or criticism, is what teachers need. Mere criticism is deadening in its effect. Encouragement, suggestion, and practical demonstrations, with criticism only to serve as a basis for constructive help, should represent the supervisor's chief efforts.¹ Kindliness, consideration, and helpfulness are necessary to win the confidence of teachers, and unless teachers can feel that the supervisor is a friend interested in their success, instead of a critical representative of the board or of the central office, helpful relations are not likely to be established between them.

¹ Mere criticism is easy and cheap, and represents a low order of scientific ability. There are many people in this world, of reasonably good training, too, who are essentially destructive critics. They can see what is the matter, but they cannot offer any constructive plan. Such people may have their place in the world, but it is not in school supervision. Constructive criticism represents a much higher order of ability, and is harder to give because it is based on deeper knowledge, but constructive criticism is the only kind that is of much value in school supervision.

The purpose of supervision, too, is to establish a unity of effort throughout the schools, so that the part of each one in the education of children may be as effective as possible. Unity, however, does not mean uniformity, though this mistaken conception is commonly held. The object in all attempts to unify processes and procedure is to mitigate the evils of the graded system of instruction. This can best be done by securing a unity of purpose all along the line. Unity of purpose and coöperation in plan are what is desired. Sometimes, oftentimes, this unity calls for coöperation in carrying forward the ordinary daily work of the school — sometimes it centers about the educational policy which is to pervade the system.

Means to this end. The supervisor must first of all try to establish good personal relations with the supervised. This will be done more easily if criticism is withheld at first, with a view to drawing out the teacher's best, which can then be commended. The teacher thus can be made to feel that she has the supervisor's sympathetic coöperation in the work she is trying to do. When things seem to go wrong or to be wrong, personal help to the teacher in her lesson planning, questioning, study assignments, seat work, time economies, and individual cases will do much to add to her confidence in the supervision. If the teaching needs improvement, suggestions as to better ways or methods should be given, rather than criticism of what was done; while for the supervisor to take the class and teach it, with the teacher as observer and critic, often will prove a very valuable means of rendering aid.

To tell a teacher that her work is unsatisfactory, because the results are unsatisfactory, is easy and cheap. Almost any person with a little teaching experience could become that kind of a supervisor. Under such a line of attack the schools would soon be relieved of a great many promising

young people. Such work merely exchanges one untrained person for another untrained person, while a feeling as to the injustice of such supervision pervades the teaching force. Helpful and friendly relationships can never be established by such a type of supervisory service. After all, while larger knowledge is important and necessary to the supervisor in dealing with immature or untrained teachers, it is kindly, sympathetic human nature, rather than larger knowledge, which will prove to be the essential requisite. A cold, austere, unsympathetic supervisor, whose chief stock in trade is criticism, whatever his knowledge, will never succeed in obtaining good results in guiding and helping teachers. Such personalities have no real place in a supervisory corps.

Distribution of time and effort. A supervisor, be he superintendent or assistant, should learn his system or group so as to supervise most economically and most helpfully. Unless he is a piece of mechanism, a supervisor will not distribute his time equally among all of his schools or all of his teachers. Some need more help than others; others need in large part to be let alone. To some teachers a supervisor goes to give help; to many for a friendly greeting or a word of encouragement; and to a few to obtain standards as to accomplishment and inspiration. The weak teacher he needs to help, and to strengthen by suggestion or example. Many capable teachers he needs to keep professionally alive by a form of criticism which consists of suggesting possibilities of further achievement of which the teacher had not been aware. The especially capable teacher often strengthens the supervisor.

What is true as to the superintendent and the assistant superintendent is equally true of the special supervisor and the school principal. Each should be allowed some liberty in choosing how and where to work. To work by order and by the calendar among teachers, without regard to their

varying degrees of efficiency, is not working in the most effective manner, and is not the best use of a supervisor's time. To find and to improve the weak spots in the system or the school ought to be an important purpose of a supervisor.

The principal as a supervisor. To the improvement of instruction the principal will need to give much time and attention. With all his work in organizing and administering his school, supervision of the instruction in it is, after all, his supreme duty. Except in cities where the standards for selection are high, the principal will be fortunate if he finds a teaching force which contains twenty-five per cent of superior teachers. Another twenty-five per cent is likely to be beginners, or at least those with but little teaching experience. The others will range all the way from young but promising teachers who need help and still are plastic, to old and mediocre teachers who have become set and self-satisfied. In working with such teachers he will find that the human factor counts for much. His interest in professional problems, his energy and zeal for his work, his orderly habits, his businesslike attitude, his sense of humor, his understanding and sympathy, his fine manly attitudes, his kindness and courtesy, his practical knowledge, and his ability to lead without driving — all will be factors of importance in his ability to inspire his teachers with his larger vision and secure coöperation from them in his efforts to improve the instruction in his school.

The teachers most in need of help, and the ones who will profit most by what he does for them, will be the beginning teachers. It is important that these be started right, and for these the principal should make his school a form of normal school. The fair average type of teacher, who will constitute the bulk of his corps, also needs that constant stimulus to professional activity which only a professionally

alive and interested principal can give. With them his object is to change wrong ways into right ways, eliminate mistakes in control and technique, and awaken new professional interests. The superior type of teacher can be of as much help to the principal as he to her. From these he obtains new standards for accomplishment and new technique which he can use, while the stabilizing effect of such teachers on the others in the force is large and important. To win and hold the support of the superior group calls for a high degree of personal competence, and is to a large degree a measure of the principal himself. The principal's helpfulness to this group will consist largely in being able to suggest to them possibilities for further achievement of which they had not been aware.

Demonstration teaching. An important means in the improvement of teachers is directed visitation and demonstration lessons. New teachers or teachers in need of help can be sent, or, better still, taken by the supervisor to visit the class work of certain teachers who have been selected because of their proficiency in certain types of instruction. After seeing certain lessons a conference can be held, with the teacher visited as the leader, and the how and why of the lesson examined and explained. A few days of such visitation, from time to time, by teachers in small groups and with definite purposes in mind, with the resulting conferences, will do much to show new or weak teachers ways of securing results which will improve materially the quality of their instruction.

In some cities a few specially capable teachers have been selected and designated as training-teachers, paid a little extra for the service, and charged with helping teachers along certain lines of work. After a visit to a teacher, the latter may return the visit to see the training-teacher at work in her own schoolroom. A good superintendent, with a

primary supervisor, good school principals, and a number of such training-teachers, can supervise quite a large teaching corps. Such supervision and assistance often seems more helpful to teachers than that given by regular supervisors, perhaps largely because it comes from one nearer to them in the service, and from one engaged in the daily practice of what she is trying to supervise.¹

Placing for effective work. Still another important means of extending helpful supervision consists in the proper placing of teachers, so that the maximum personal efficiency may be obtained from each teacher. Anything less is not getting maximum returns for the money expended, and is fair neither to the taxpayer nor to the teacher concerned. The control of the placing and transfer of teachers should be wholly in the hands of the superintendent. No board of education or committee of the board has the technical knowledge or is close enough to the problem to be able to handle such situations with any degree of skill. Teacher A, now in a sixth-grade room, will do better in primary work; teacher B, now in third grade, seems better adapted to teaching the adolescent and is tried in the eighth grade; teacher C lacks the scholarship for the upper grades, but has the large personal sympathy and ability to take pains needed for lower grade work; teacher D is properly located as to position, but needs a less trying class until she gets better command of her work and more self confidence. So it goes throughout the teaching force. The supervisory study of every teacher should involve proper placing, as well as the development of teaching technique.

The preceding paragraphs sketch very briefly something of the work of the superintendent as supervisor, referred

¹ See *Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1928, pp. 233-34, for note on the demonstration classes in Providence, Rhode Island.

to in Chapter XV. The service is important and well repays effort, though economy demands, as a school system grows, that the superintendent spend his larger efforts in training his assistants, supervisors, and school principals to render a satisfactory grade of supervisory service. A professional teaching force, satisfied that the superintendent and his assistants are making an earnest effort to help them to succeed in their work, forms a strong bulwark for a superintendent in times of popular agitation or political trouble.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is it desirable that new teachers should rank higher in ability than the average of a teaching force?
2. Would it be desirable to require home girls, who have been graduated from a normal school or university, to obtain some experience elsewhere before entering the home schools, or not?
3. What would be some of the serious defects and limitations of a training-school for teachers in a city of 100,000 population or less?
4. Why does the training which sufficed to produce a satisfactory teacher for the years before the World War, fail to produce a satisfactory teacher for to-day?
5. The *Report of the Commission Appointed to Study the School System of Baltimore* showed (p. 55) that the length of service of the teaching force at the time (1911) was as follows:

Entered service of the city prior to 1860.....	5
Entered service of the city between 1860 and 1869.....	52
Entered service of the city between 1870 and 1879.....	137
Entered service of the city between 1880 and 1889.....	292
Entered service of the city between 1890 and 1899.....	535
Entered service of the city between 1900 and 1905.....	329
Entered service of the city between 1905 and 1911.....	438
	1788

Point out the need for further training of such a teaching force, and the effect on the instructing corps of a lack of it.

6. What reason can you see for teachers reaching a somewhat stationary plane after seven or eight years of teaching service?

7. What type of subjects could be taken up advantageously in a general meeting of
 - (a) Primary teachers?
 - (b) Seventh- and eighth-grade teachers?
 - (c) High-school teachers?
 - (d) Elementary-school principals?
8. Contrast, in influence on the work of the schools, academic study while teaching, and study in summer sessions or on leave of absence at regular sessions of normal schools or colleges.
9. What reason can you see for the common statement that it takes four or five years to make a good teacher out of even a normal-school graduate?
10. Can you see any reason why a board of education should refuse a leave of absence to a teacher who wishes to use it for purposes of study?
11. Do you think that sabbatical leaves for teachers, on half pay, would be a good thing for the schools? Would the results compensate the schools proportionally to the extra cost for such leaves?
12. Why is a self-satisfied and relatively stationary city more likely to have a poor supervisory organization than a rapidly growing one?
13. Is it easier to succeed in a city having a supervisory organization based on uniform courses, rigid requirements, and general examinations, than in one having a flexible and highly efficient organization? Why?
14. Give some illustrations of
 - (a) Helpful supervision.
 - (b) Negative supervision.
 - (c) Destructive supervision.
15. What do you understand by the statement that "the purpose of supervision is to establish unity of effort throughout the school system"?
16. How could you make your classroom supervision contribute to the training of teachers in service?
17. Would a rule of a school board requiring all principals to teach some particular class one period each day be a desirable rule? Why?
18. Why is the fining of teachers or principals for violations of rules and regulations an undesirable practice?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Ascertain the exact nature of the training for teaching given in the city training-schools of three larger cities, and the character of the teaching force and teaching equipment of each. Compare this with state teacher college training in the same State.
2. Look up and report on the administration and results derived from funds, used to help teachers in service to secure better training:
 - (a) The Gregg bequest and other funds in Indianapolis.
 - (b) The Schmidlapp fund in Cincinnati.
 - (c) The \$250,000 fund in Pittsburgh.
 - (d) Any other similar funds of which you may know.
3. Find what you can as to the work and services of Teachers Councils, in places where these exist, and try to formulate some principles of action and guidance as to them.
4. Look up leaves of absences on pay for purposes of travel or study, granted teachers from public funds, and try to formulate principles of action as to such grants.
5. Means for continuing the improvement of trained teachers after they enter the profession.
6. Supervisory schemes for rating and evaluating and improving teachers in service.

PROBLEMS

1. A city training school, in a city of 200,000 inhabitants, costs \$150,000 a year for maintenance, has an investment in plant and equipment, aside from the training school, of \$475,000, and graduates an average yearly of 75 teachers. The city employs a total of 1250 teachers, and needs about 100 new teachers each year. Assuming a three-year training course, what does it cost the city to train a teacher? If the city now abandoned its training school and depended on the state institutions for teachers, how much could it add to the yearly salary of the teachers it employs?
2. The teachers of a city school system have asked to be permitted to participate in policy making, and it has been decided to create a Teachers' Council for advisory service. You are chairman of a committee appointed to formulate a set of rules

which will define the powers and functions of the Council, and also delimit its authority so as to prevent interference with executive functions and prevent the Council becoming other than advisory. Draw up a set of rules for the school board to adopt that will make proper provision.

3. Outline a plan for a year's work with school principals, directed toward the improvement of some phase of the educational service.
4. Compile a list of books or reports to be read by teachers and principals, and discussed in some of the teachers' meetings, as follows:
 - (a) Two books for teachers in the first three grades.
 - (b) Two books for teachers in grades four to six.
 - (c) Two books for teachers in the intermediate-school (grades 7 to 9 inclusive).
 - (d) One book for all teachers in high schools.
 - (e) Five books for principals in elementary schools.
 State your reason for including each book, and also how you would direct the reading and handle the discussion of it.
5. Outline a plan for your first general teachers' meeting, to be held at the beginning of the school year.

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CHAPTER XX

PAY AND PROMOTION OF TEACHERS

Adequate pay necessary. The present compensation for the work of teaching, not only in our cities but in town and rural schools as well, is largely a result of the low standards for entering the work and the job-conception of teaching which have so long prevailed. Despite recent advances in salary made generally to teachers, it still remains true that the great mass of the public has no adequate conception as to what proper training for and adaptability to the work of teaching mean, and does not take particularly kindly to proposals to raise the requirements for admission to the work. The public generally fears that higher standards may mean higher taxes for schools, and desires to keep teaching on as nearly a competitive basis as is possible. Teachers also often feel so sympathetic for some poor friend who wants to teach and who may be cut out by higher standards, or are so fearful that higher standards may mean closer supervision and more work for them, that they, too, not infrequently are quite willing to let conditions remain about as they are.

To the officers of the National Education Association, Teachers Associations, and to the superintendents of our city school systems, backed by a few of the more progressive teachers, has fallen almost the entire recent burden of pushing up salaries and the requirements for entering on the work of instructing in the schools. They have carried on a good fight, for the past ten years, and as a result we have been able to secure salary increases for our teachers that about compensate them for the depreciated purchasing

power of the dollars with which they have been paid.¹ For the increased preparation demanded since the World War they have not been paid. Figure 26 gives the median salaries of the three main types of teachers as they were, for cities of different size, in 1926.

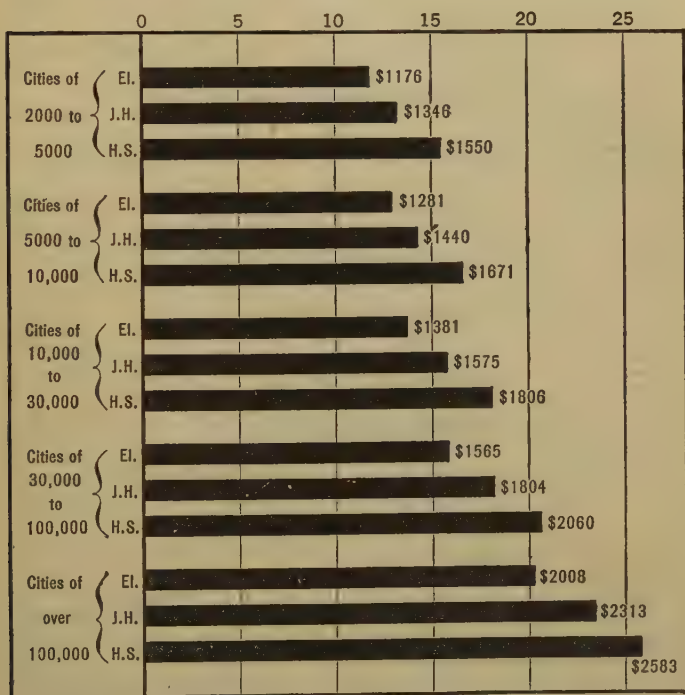


FIG. 26. MEDIAN YEARLY SALARIES FOR TEACHERS IN CITIES

Median salaries, 1926-27, for elementary-school, junior-high-school, and high-school teachers, in cities of different sizes. (From data by Norton.)

¹ On the basis of the 1913 dollar, it required \$1.75 to purchase, in 1926, what \$1.00 purchased in 1913. Counting backward from 1913 the same number of years, 74½ cents had the same purchasing power in 1900. A \$2000 salary in 1900 had a purchasing power of \$1548 in 1913, and of \$884 in 1926.

Higher pay and higher standards are practically inseparable, and higher pay must, in most cases, precede or accompany any increase in requirements. In most of our American cities the increase in preparation demanded, and

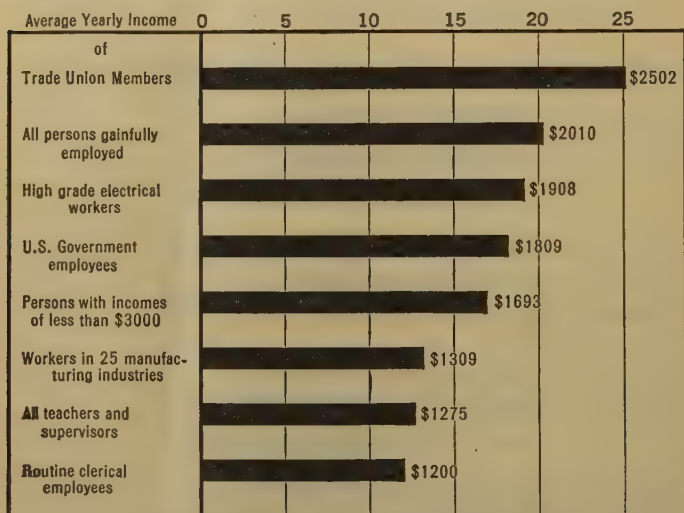


FIG. 27. AVERAGE TEACHERS' SALARIES COMPARED WITH INCOMES OF OTHER CLASSES OF WORKERS

Average for teachers is average for all teachers, principals, and superintendents of schools. (After data by Norton.)

the marked increase in the cost of living, together have out-run the recent increases in pay, large as these may seem to the general public to have been. The first step, in many communities, to retain even present standards of preparation and efficiency, to say nothing of any increase in standards, lies in the direction of a further increase in the minimum salary for all teachers.¹ After this has been done, additional grants, based on increased service, professional prepara-

¹ See article in *School and Society* for September 26, 1925 (vol. 22, p. 396), for note on *Chicago Report on Living Costs and Teachers' Salaries*.

tion, and teaching efficiency should be provided. If good teachers are to be obtained to fill vacancies, and those now in the force are to continue to render good service, all must be paid enough to enable them to live as persons of culture and refinement should. Figure 27 shows the relation of teachers' salaries to the earnings of various groups of workers, for the year 1926.

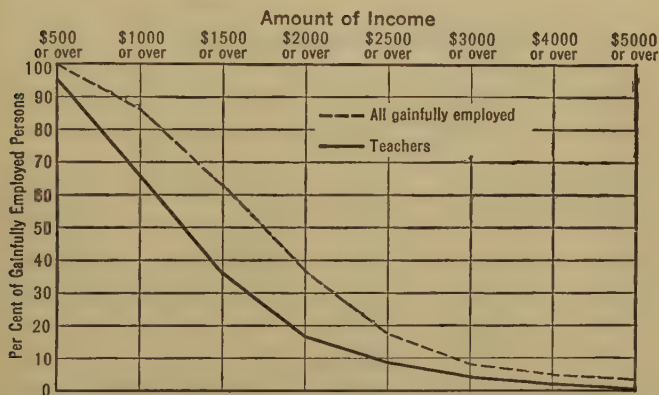


FIG. 28. YEARLY INCOMES OF TEACHERS AND ALL GAINFULLY EMPLOYED OCCUPIED PERSONS, COMPARED

(After Norton, data for 1926.)

Figure 28 makes a further comparison of all gainfully occupied persons and teachers, for the different salary ranges. The average income for those gainfully employed is an average of the income of 44,600,000 such persons for the year 1926, and the average for teachers includes principals and superintendents as well. Only routine clerical employees, seldom calling for more than a high-school education, ranked lower than teachers in earning power.

What such pay is worth. How low such salaries are perhaps can be understood better by turning such yearly pay into a daily-wage table. There are twelve months and three

hundred and thirteen working days in a year. Deducting holidays, let us say that there are three hundred working days a year. For this number of days almost all other forms of service are paid. That the teacher works only ten months and two hundred days a year is, in part, necessitated by the nerve-trying character of teaching, and in part by the requirements of children and parents. The teacher must live, however, the whole year round, and during the summer vacation period she frequently adds to her preparation by study or travel, either of which is expensive. The wage ranges which the medians of Figure 26 comprehend give the following pay standards per working day:

\$1000 a year equals.....	\$3.33	\$1800 a year equals.....	\$6.00
1100.....	3.67	1900.....	6.33
1200.....	4.00	2000.....	6.67
1300.....	4.33	2100.....	7.00
1400.....	4.67	2200.....	7.33
1500.....	5.00	2300.....	7.67
1600.....	5.33	2400.....	8.00
1700.....	5.67	2500.....	8.33

Carpenters, machinists, plumbers, lathers, plasterers, bakers, telegraph operators, wiremen, structural iron workers, blacksmiths, printers, bricklayers, painters, decorators, enginemen, trainmen, clerks in city offices, policemen, and firemen are paid better than are teachers,¹ at the median

¹ A recent study published by the Minnesota State Board of Education, entitled *Teacher Shortage and Salaries* (St. Paul, 1920), may be taken as representative of a large number of studies which have been made, in all parts of the United States. This report gave the following comparative data as to yearly income, at that time:

Plumber.....	\$1847	Day Laborer.....	\$1107
Mason.....	1797	Stenographer.....	989
Barber.....	1615	High-school teacher.....	982
Carpenter.....	1507	Store clerk.....	945
Teamster.....	1172	Grade-school teacher.....	803
Bookkeeper.....	1124	Rural-school teacher.....	620

annual salaries paid, though the education and professional preparation required for such services, and the style of living to be met, are not comparable with what is required of teachers. In the purchase of what we eat and drink and wear, our people have paid the increased cost, but the public obtains education at a lower relative cost than almost anything else it buys. No further marked advance in standards for entering the work, or in paying teachers on the basis of efficiency, is possible under such salary medians as still prevail.

Reasonable salary demands. When the American bill for education is compared with the bill for tobacco, drink, cosmetics, gasoline, candy and soda-water, or amusements,¹ and the importance of education in unifying our people and in saving and advancing the best interests of the race are remembered, such salaries as are now paid elementary, junior-high, and secondary-school teachers in many of our cities — in practically all of the cities of some of our States — are little less than disgraceful.² Considering the importance of the service and the cost of training and living, a beginning salary of \$1500, and increasing automatically up to at least \$2000 for elementary-school teachers; a beginning salary of \$1600, and increasing automatically up to \$2200, for junior-high-school teachers; and a beginning salary of \$1800 and increasing automatically up to \$2400 for secondary-school teachers, certainly is not an unreasonable amount for any American city to pay. Many cities should pay more; some much more. The effect of good salaries on

¹ United States Treasury estimates indicate annual expenditures for some twenty luxuries and non-necessities of the type of the above of around ten times the total annual cost for all kinds of education.

² See a good note in *Educational Review* for October, 1925, pp. 116-17, on cost for teachers' salaries and the way the public meets it, compared with the action of Henry Ford and Lord Leverhulme in raising the pay of their workers.

the quality of a teaching force is well shown by Figure 29, given on page 378.

Automatic increases. The usual city salary schedule provides for some annual increments, advancing slowly until the maximum salary is reached, though the tendency usually is for the maximum salary to be reached too soon. The beginning salary may be lower if the service increments continue for a longer time.

Keeping in mind the principle that beginning teachers tend to improve in efficiency for a period of six or seven to eight or nine years, and then to reach a plane where little additional progress usually is made without a change or further study, it can be seen that the plan of making a series of small salary increases, based on years in the service, has, for a time, much merit. The beginning salary for beginning teachers should not be too large, but still large enough to attract to teaching the kind of persons desired, and then should increase automatically, if the teacher is retained, up to a certain maximum common for all teachers in that branch of the educational service. This maximum salary should represent a respectable living wage, and should be reached about the time the plane of maximum efficiency without additional study is reached. Increases in salary beyond this common maximum also should be possible, but such increases should be dependent upon increased professional training and demonstrated efficiency in the service.

Rewards for growth and efficient service. Just how to pay to elementary-school teachers such additional grants for increased professional usefulness has been and still is one of our difficult administrative problems.

In the college world salary gradations based on rank and attainment are universal, and are everywhere accepted as desirable and just. In so far as secondary-school teachers are concerned graded salary schedules have been easy to

arrange, as gradations have been accepted as proper and just by them. By the creation of such positions as heads of departments, sub-heads, and teachers — or heads of departments, instructors, and assistants — a graded salary schedule can be worked out which can be used, in combination with promotions, to reward efficient teachers and to hold in check those who are least deserving.

In the case of elementary-school teachers, however, there has been a marked tendency for them, as a class, to object to any discriminations between teachers on any basis involving the question of status or the personal efficiency of individuals. In some cities which have introduced such a plan it has produced discontent; and in some cases a tendency to unionize, to antagonize the administration, and to ostracize those teachers who meet the promotional standards has developed.

That all teachers who have been at work long enough to be regarded as experienced teachers are of equal, or even of approximately equal ability, every executive officer knows is not the case.¹ A uniform salary schedule assumes that all of equal rank and experience are approximately of equal worth — a condition that is never found to exist. The great bulk of the teachers in any city, where good supervision has been the rule and professional preparation and growth have been emphasized, are good average teachers. A few will be more or less weak, and a few will be quite superior. Where salaries have been low and supervision poor the tendency will be toward a poorer quality of teacher, as is shown in Figure 29.

Stimulating industry and individual improvement. How many will be of the class known as superior will depend greatly on the incentives to become superior teachers which

¹ For ten good descriptions of individual teachers, with salaries paid each, see the *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Portland*, pp. 79–80.

the salary schedule and the administration of the system provide. To stimulate industry on the part of teachers, to encourage individual improvement, and to reward exceptional merit, should be characteristics of a good salary schedule as well as of a good system of school supervision.

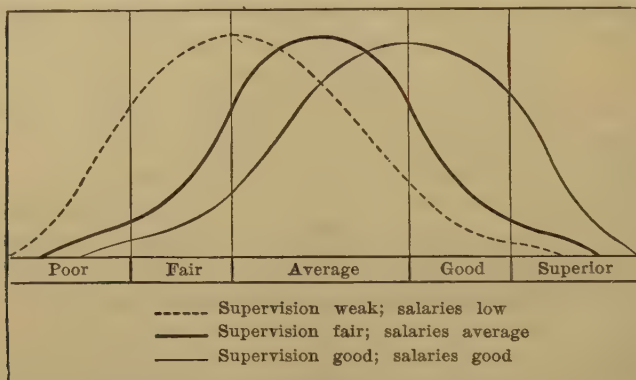


FIG. 29. TENDENCIES IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS UNDER DIFFERENT TYPES OF SUPERVISION AND DIFFERENT SALARY SCHEDULES

Take away incentives to growth and rewards for efficient service, and a teaching force tends to decline rapidly in efficiency.

The type plans which have been tried to prevent such a decline, and to apportion rewards on the basis of merit, group themselves around: (1) Attaching different salaries to positions, and promoting from the lower-paid to the higher-paid; (2) establishment of grades in the teaching service, with a different salary schedule for each; (3) additional salary grants for evidences of increased scholarship or professional preparation, often involving the passing of some form of promotional examination; (4) grading teachers on the basis of estimated efficiency, usually using some rather elaborate form or scale; and (5) salaries based primarily on

training and service. We shall consider each of these type plans, in order, and then lay down what seem to be the essential features of a good salary schedule.

1. *Graded salaries based on tenure or position*

In its simplest form this type of salary schedule is based on service only, and is well illustrated by the following very simple salary schedule, adopted recently by a small Middle-Western city:

YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE		ANNUAL SALARY INCREMENT	FIXED YEARLY SALARY
Total	Must have been in the city employing		
1	..	..	\$1300
2	..	\$100	1400
3	..	100	1500
4	1	100	1600
5	2	100	1700
6	3	100	1800

This type of salary schedule also frequently is combined with different rates of pay for the different grades, and often with different lengths of time for which the annual increments are given, and hence provides different maximum levels. It is usual, also, in cities using this plan, to have a different salary schedule for the high-school teachers, and for different grades in the elementary-school service. This is illustrated quite well by the following salary schedule, recently adopted by one of our medium-sized Eastern cities:

TEACHING POSITION	BEGINNING SALARY	YEARLY INCREASE	YEARS TO REACH MAXIMUM	MAXIMUM FOR POSITION
Grade 1.....	\$1400	\$50	5	\$1650
Kindergarten & gr. 2 and 3...	1300	50	5	1550
Grades 4 to 6.....	1300	50	6	1600
Grade 7.....	1350	60	6	1710
Grade 8.....	1400	75	6	1850
High School.....	1600	100	7	2300

Another of our medium-sized cities illustrates the same idea, except that all teachers here start at the same minimum salary and advance at the same rate, but in the higher grades the yearly additions keep up for a longer time, and these grades, in consequence, carry a higher maximum salary. The following salary schedule for an Eastern city illustrates this plan:

TEACHING POSITION	BEGINNING SALARY	YEARLY INCREASE	YEARS TO REACH MAXIMUM	MAXIMUM FOR POSITION
Grade 1.....	\$1300	\$100	5	\$1800
Grades 2, 3 and 4.....	1300	100	4	1700
Grades 5 and 6.....	1300	100	5	1800
Grade 7.....	1300	100	6	1900
Grade 8.....	1300	100	7	2000
High School.....	1300	100	10	2300

Defects of such schedules. The main trouble with all such simple graded salary plans is that they are wholly artificial, they are not based on sound administrative principles, and they do not comply with the essential features of a good salary schedule, as stated on pages 395-97.

In part they are based on the old idea that "any one can teach little children," a conception entirely abandoned by progressive cities, and forbidden by law in some of our States.¹ They also violate a fundamental principle of a good salary schedule, namely, that a salary schedule should be so arranged as to permit of the assignment of every teacher to that position or kind of work which he or she can best do, without having first to consider the salary attached to the position. As we shall point out, further on under (5), this

¹ For example, the California School Code, Sec. 1687, provides: "In all schools having more than two teachers, beginners shall be taught by teachers who have had at least two years' experience, or be normal school graduates; and in cities such teachers shall rank, in point of salary, with those of the assistant teachers in the highest grade in the grammar schools."

is seldom possible to the full in our American cities, but it ought to be possible in each division of the school system, at least.

There are only a few forms of salary grants based on position, for elementary-school teachers, which are free from such objection. The designation of a few superior teachers as special training or demonstration teachers, for those in need of special assistance, as was indicated in Chapter XIX; teachers of different types of special classes, where special training and more than ordinary classroom skill is demanded; and teachers in the upper grades, when a departmental plan of instruction is in use and extra and special preparation is required for the service and a single-salary schedule (5) is not in use, may with propriety be singled out for such extra salary grants.

2. Salary grants based on grades in the service

Salary grants based on the establishment of grades in the teaching service may be divided into two classes: (a) Where advance from grade to grade is based on estimated classroom efficiency and the recommendation of the superintendent of schools; and (b) where teachers must present evidence of professional growth, by passing certain examinations or by presenting credentials, as a prerequisite to such promotion in salary. The first (a) is similar to the plan followed generally by colleges and universities in the payment of their teachers, and has much to commend it.

Promotions on recommendation. The simplest example of the first class of salary grants based on grades in the service is found in the case of high-school teachers. The beginning teacher enters the work with the rank of assistant or teacher, is later promoted to the rank of instructor or sub-head of a department, and still later may be promoted to the rank and position of head of a department — each posi-

tion carrying with it certain automatic salary increases and salary limits, as:

RANK	BEGINNING SALARY	INCREMENTS	TIMES	MAXIMUM SALARY
Teaching assistant.....	\$1600	100	3	\$1900
Instructor.....	2000	100	8	2800
Head of department.....	3000	100	6	3600

In one of our larger cities, which has an automatic salary schedule covering a long period of years, and applying to both elementary-school and secondary-school teachers, two halts, as above, are made in the automatic increases of each. These are so placed as to divide the period into three approximately equal parts, and at these halts increases in salaries do not proceed "unless and until the service of the teacher shall have been approved, after inspection and investigation, as fit and meritorious by a majority of the board of superintendents."

It would be possible to work out a salary schedule for elementary-school teachers, based on this plan and patterned after that of secondary-school teachers, by dividing elementary-school teachers into a number of ranks or classes, with promotion from one to the other on the specific recommendation of the superintendent, such recommendation based, in turn, on careful estimates as to growth and efficiency. Within each rank there would be automatic increases, but teachers might rest temporarily or permanently at the maximum of any rank.¹ The following will illustrate such a plan,² twenty-three years being required to reach the maximum salary:

¹ That is what takes place in every university. Some men are never promoted beyond the rank of assistant professor; many never beyond the grade of associate professor; though the more energetic and capable can usually count on reaching the grade and pay of professor by about the age of forty.

² This plan, as outlined above, is quite similar to college plans. In a college or university a man starts as instructor, on annual appointments and

CLASS	PERIOD OF APPOINTMENT	BEGINNING SALARY	YEARLY INCREASE	YEARS TO MAXIMUM	MAXIMUM SALARY FOR CLASS
1. Probationary teachers	Annual	\$1500	\$100	3	\$1700
2. Three-year teachers	3 years	1800	75	3	1950
3. Five-year teachers	5 years	2000	50	5	2200
4. Permanent teachers	Until retired	2250	{ 50 25	{ 4 8	{ 2400 2600

At the end of the period of appointment for classes two and three, teachers may be promoted, given a second appointment in the same class at the maximum salary of this class, or given notice of a desire on the part of the board of education to terminate the contract.

For promotion from class two to class three, a year of study under direction ordinarily will be required, but the promotion may be granted in special cases on the basis of superior merit.

Class four reserved for teachers of superior merit only — the master teachers of the system.

Russell's proposed plan ¹ for paying and improving the efficiency of teachers in service, by grading them into Novice (1 year), Journeyman (5-8 years), Graduate (4 years), and Master Teachers, the last having indefinite tenure, is quite similar to the plan which has just been outlined.

Promotional examinations. The second class of advances by grades requires the passing of some form of promotional examination, as well as obtaining the specific recommendation of the superintendent of schools, as a prerequisite to promotion from one grade to another in the service, or for eligibility to certain types of positions. There is no uniformity in procedure in this respect. This plan has at times been followed by a number of our larger cities, notably Balti-

usually not over three such being made. This is a trial period. Then follows assistant professor with a three-year appointment, associate professor with a five-year appointment, and finally full professor with indefinite tenure — presumably for life. For each rank there are certain salary minima and maxima. A teacher may move faster or slower than the schedule, or he may stop at any stage along the line after that of instructor has been passed.

¹ See Russell, Chas.: *The Improvement of the City Elementary School Teacher in Service*. New York, 1922. Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 128.

more, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Kansas City, Lincoln, New York City, Patterson, Saginaw, Springfield (Ohio), and Washington.¹ The nature of the examinations has varied with the different cities, being more academic in some and more strictly professional in others. In Baltimore, for example, where the promotional examinations were simple in nature and closely applicable to the work of instruction, the first examination was based on the use of English, and the second on a year's study of some special schoolroom problem.²

The promotional examination idea has been accepted heartily in some cities, while in others it has caused much bitter feeling. The plan, in so far as it interests teachers in attending extension courses, or awakens an interest in the study of classroom problems and leads to reading and study, undoubtedly serves a good purpose. On the other hand, the plan, as sometimes used, is open to certain objections. Study during the time the schools are in session, if heavy in amount or unrelated to school work, may be done at the expense of efficient instruction, and undoubtedly is so done in some cases. Again, percentages obtained in the written examinations do not necessarily bear any relation to actual or future efficiency in classroom instruction. In principle, though, the promotional examination is capable of limited application in the framing of a scheme for promoting teachers on a merit basis. Its chief use is as one of a number of bases for estimating growth and professional efficiency.

¹ See Ruediger's *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*, pp. 117-37, for a description of the plans followed in each of these cities.

² Baltimore has often been cited as a place where promotional examinations failed, but the lack of any marked success there was doubtless due much more to the very low salaries paid teachers (minimum, \$444; maximum, \$700) than to the promotional plan itself. Had there first been a flat raise of 30 to 40 per cent, and then promotional examinations instituted for further increases, it is probable that little opposition of consequence would have been made to the plan.

3. *Additional salary grants for study*

Advantages and disadvantages of this type. This type represents a relatively simple and an easy method for handling salary advances, and within the past fifteen years the plan has come into rather extensive use. Under it a uniform salary schedule for all can be followed, and then additional salary grants can be made for evidence of additional approved study.¹ A good example of this method is that followed at Ithaca, New York, and illustrated in Figure 30.

One objection advanced against this plan is that, under ordinary salary conditions, many of the most promising of the teachers do not feel that they can afford the expense involved in such study, and they of course receive no additional salary grants in consequence. The plan, too, while rewarding the more energetic, does not in itself bear any close relation to schoolroom efficiency, unless combined with some form of teacher rating.

On the other hand, a small added grant for summer study is merely a little help toward paying the expenses incurred, whereas the teacher ought to be a better teacher for some time by reason of the change and the new intellectual ideas and contacts, and such grants can hardly be considered as other than a good investment for the school board. Similarly leaves of absence, especially sabbatical leaves, ought to be encouraged by the school board, as a periodical leave for travel and study is worth much as an impetus to further growth. Perhaps the plan does reward the more energetic and the more capable, and perhaps also these are the ones who ought most to be aided and encouraged with a view to retaining their services in the school system.

¹ An example of this method of handling salary increases will be found in the suggestions made at the close of Chapter V of the *Report of the Survey of the Public School System of Portland, Oregon*. Summer schools, years of study in colleges and universities, and travel and study in Europe were all suggested there as bases for salary increases, beyond a common maximum.

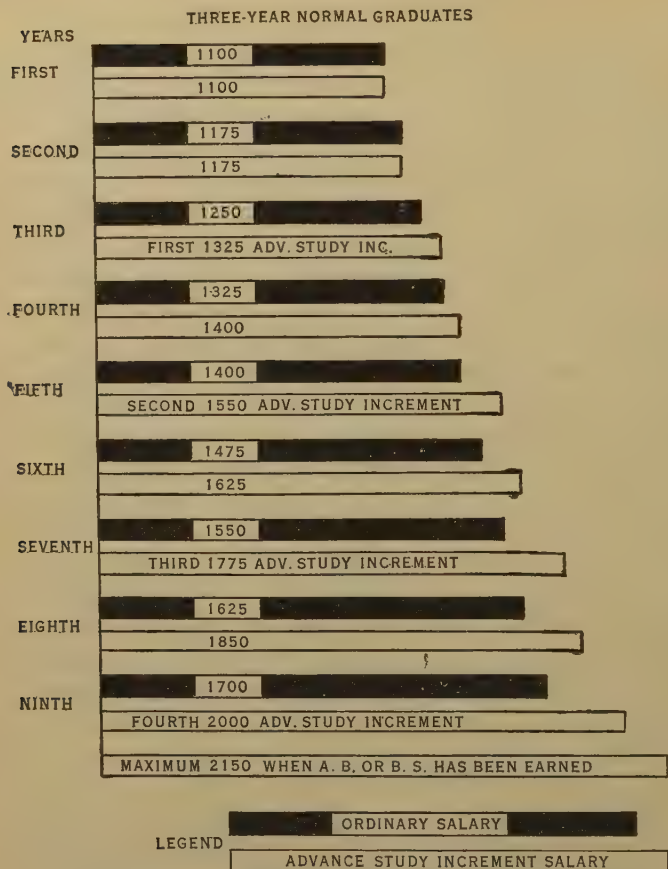


FIG. 30. THE ITHACA PLAN FOR EXTRA SALARY GRANTS

The black lines show ordinary salaries for all teachers, with \$100 additional in all cases where the teacher holds a college degree. By approved study, any teacher in any grade or department may increase her salary \$450 in nine years, with \$100 additional for earning a baccalaureate degree.

Also, by superior teaching service, the eight regular annual increments may be granted in less than eight years. The plan virtually is a single-salary schedule, with extra grants for study and high teaching rating, and is especially meritorious for these reasons.

4. *Salary grants based on efficiency*

This is the most important and at the same time the most difficult scheme to carry out of all the different plans for paying teachers somewhat in proportion to their growth and personal efficiency. It has been tried in a number of places, but not always with the most satisfactory results. In its essentials it consists of a carefully formed judgment by a supervisory officer — often the combined judgment of a number of supervisory officers — as to each teacher's efficiency for the work required by the schools, and on the basis of such report, usually filed in writing, salary increases are granted and promotions are made. In principle, this basis has been used by cities for a long time, but in its charted and organized form, known as Rating Scales, the idea is relatively recent.

Criticism of the plan. If the scoring of teachers on these rating scales is done carefully and with good judgment, and covers a sufficient number of points, and is done by a sufficient number of observers, the combined results are likely to prove a very good estimate as to the relative efficiency of the teacher. The chief trouble encountered is that the teacher who is marked low usually feels that she has been marked unfairly, and with some of the plans in use it is hard to prove that she is wrong. In the end the validity of the results tends to fall back largely on the reliability of the personal judgment of some person or persons, and, in the present status of the supervision of instruction in our American cities, this is its weak point. It is rather easy for teachers to claim, and with some degree of truth, that the principal was not competent, or that the assistant superintendent or the superintendent was not closely enough in touch with the work of the teacher to enable either of them to appreciate and evaluate the work which was being done. When boards of education accept the judgment of such officers,

GENERAL RATING.....							□ X ○	
QUALITIES OF MERIT	VERY POOR	POOR	MEDIUM			Good	Ex.	
I. Personal Equipment—								
1. General appearance.....						X	□	○
2. Health.....						X	□	○
3. Voice.....		X				□	○	
4. Intellectual capacity.....					X	□	○	■
5. Initiative and self-reliance.....						□	○	
6. Adaptability and resourcefulness.....						□	○	
7. Accuracy.....						□	○	
8. Industry.....						□	○	
9. Enthusiasm and optimism.....			X			□	○	
10. Integrity and sincerity.....						□	○	
11. Self-control.....						X	○	
12. Promptness.....						□	○	
13. Tact.....						X	○	
14. Sense of justice.....						X	○	
II. Social and Professional Equipment—								
1. Academic preparation.....						□	○	■
2. Professional preparation.....						□	○	
3. Grasp of subject-matter.....						□	○	
4. Understanding of children.....						□	○	
5. School and community interest.....						□	○	
6. Ability to meet and interest parents.....			X			□	○	
7. Interest in lives of pupils.....						X	○	
8. Co-operation and loyalty.....						□	○	
9. Professional interest and growth.....						□	○	
10. Daily preparation.....						□	○	
11. Use of English.....						X	○	
III. School Management—								
1. Care of light, heat, and ventilation.....						□	○	
2. Neatness of room.....						X	○	
3. Care of routine.....						X	○	
4. Discipline (governing skill).....			□		X	○		
IV. Technique of Teaching—								
1. Definiteness and clearness of aim.....						□	○	
2. Skill in habit formation.....						□	○	
3. Skill in stimulating thought.....						□	○	
4. Skill in teaching how to study.....						□	○	
5. Skill in questioning.....						□	○	
6. Choice of subject-matter.....						□	○	
7. Organization of subject-matter.....						□	○	
8. Skill and care in assignment.....						□	○	
9. Skill in motivating work.....						□	○	
10. Attention to individual needs.....					X	□	○	
V. Results—								
1. Attention and response of the class.....						□	○	
2. Growth of pupils in subject-matter.....						□	○	
3. Social development of pupils.....					X	□	○	
4. Stimulation of community.....						□	○	
5. Moral influence.....						X	○	

FIG. 31. A TEACHER EFFICIENCY SCORE CARD

This card shows the rating of a good teacher by three supervisory officers, and is in effect a consolidated score. Another plan of using the card would be for each person to indicate his rating by dots, and then connect the dots by lines, using different colored ink for each rating. (Reprinted from J. B. Sears's *Classroom Organization and Control*, rev. ed., p. 321.)

as they must almost of necessity do, a sense of injustice often remains which breeds discontent among a teaching force.¹ If the supervision is close and helpful, as was stated in the preceding chapter ought to be the case, if the rating form used is good, and if fairness and frankness are employed in dealing with teachers, results highly indicative at least ought to be secured from the use of such a plan. Figure 31 reproduces one of the better simple rating forms which have been produced, and one that emphasizes personal and teaching efficiency.

Plan right in principle. On the other hand, it is a matter of common knowledge that in most of our cities some of the poorest teachers in the service are those drawing the largest salaries.² The number of such may not be large, but this condition does exist almost everywhere. It is not uncommon for teachers, after some years of growth, or with the maximum salary attained, to settle down slowly into a sure and comfortable position, do their work in a more or less perfunctory manner, and make no further efforts toward any increase in personal efficiency. The result is that, with the rapid advance in both the theory and practice of education, they are gradually left farther and farther behind. Such teachers almost always are surprised and indignant at any questioning of their efficiency, and often are leaders in efforts to prevent the introduction of efficiency estimates. To dismiss them, if they have been a long time in the service, is practically impossible, and a salary schedule, based in part on estimated or calculated efficiency, is about the only way to reach them.

Such an element in a salary schedule has the double

¹ One wag has said that if the superintendent adopts a rating plan he is then between the devil and the deep blue sea, and if he discards all attempt at rating he then is entirely at sea.

² See, for example, the ten teachers described in the *Portland Report*, previously cited in the footnote at the bottom of page 377.

purpose of preventing the younger teacher from falling into such a self-satisfied condition, and the continual stimulation of all teachers to efforts at personal improvement. The plan is in harmony with all principles underlying efficiency in the public service, and is also in harmony with one of the fundamental principles which should control in the construction of a salary schedule, namely, that it should be such as to stimulate industry, encourage individual improvement, and reward exceptional merit. With the increasing demands of superintendents generally for more money for teachers' salaries, the public may be expected, in turn, to demand that superintendents and school boards produce evidence that the money which has been given them has been so used as to secure the most efficient service.

Type plans for estimating efficiency. A number of cities, within recent years, have introduced some form of efficiency estimates, as Figure 32 shows, and have evolved various

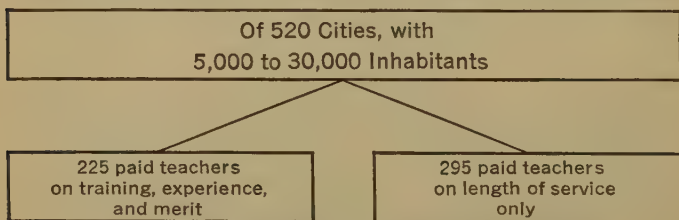


FIG. 32. HOW TEACHERS ARE PAID IN SMALLER CITIES

(Based on data by Deffenbaugh.)

types of printed schedule forms for scoring the efficiency of their teachers.¹ These forms are of three types, one for confidential use, another for open use with teachers, and a third for use by teachers themselves.² Each of these types

¹ Buckingham, in 1922, found that 90 per cent of 156 city school systems investigated used a rating form, and King, in 1925, found such forms in use in 70 of 92 cities of over 25,000 population which he investigated.

² See *Elementary School Journal* for June, 1920 (vol. 20, pp. 723-24) for a Teachers' Rating Card in use at Omaha which was worked out by the teachers themselves.

consists of a number of forms, according to the use to be made of them and the points upon which emphasis is to be placed.

The Decatur, Illinois,¹ form represents a good type of those intended for confidential markings, for the use of the superintendent of schools. With it an attempt has been made to estimate and evaluate teachers on:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Physical aspect of school. | 6. Attitude toward pupils. |
| 2. Teacher's personality. | 7. Discipline and control. |
| 3. Adaptability. | 8. Teaching skill. |
| 4. Loyalty to school policies. | 9. Professional interests. |
| 5. Spirit of coöperation. | 10. General impression. |

Three different persons usually scored each teacher, and the markings were combined by the superintendent as a composite estimate.

Chicago has recently adopted a form upon which teachers are rated as superior, excellent, satisfactory, unsatisfactory, and inefficient, on the following items:

1. Knowledge of subject matter.
2. Teaching ability.
3. Progress made by the pupils.
4. Coöperation with pupils and public.
5. Professional standing.

Minneapolis, Berea, Ohio, and Shenandoah County, Virginia are examples ² of places where a teacher self-rating card is in use.

Rochester, New York, is representative of what may be called a combination plan, in that all judgments as to the

¹ See Ruediger's *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*, pp. 139-41. Ruediger also reproduces forms used in Kansas City, Missouri; Lincoln, Nebraska; and Washington, D.C. Salt Lake City, Utah, and Sacramento, California, have also evolved good forms.

² The forms used in these places are reproduced in City School Leaflet No. 18 (February, 1925) of the U.S. Bureau of Education, entitled *Samples of Teacher Self-Rating Cards*, by Bertha Y. Hebb.

preparation and efficiency of teachers, made by the use of rating devices, are further combined with tests, made at intervals and using standard test forms, as to the results of classroom instruction, and these are further combined with promotion records and other data collected by the bureau of efficiency of the school department. The principle followed here is that a combination of three different kinds of measures is far more reliable than one alone. With the perfection of intelligence-measuring scales, and their somewhat general introduction into school work for diagnostic purposes, and with the more general provision for efficiency experts and clinical psychologists in connection with school systems, this method is likely to be adopted somewhat generally by cities interested in obtaining the best results in their schools. It possesses certain obvious advantages over the ordinary personal-judgment plan for rating teaching efficiency.

Incentives to growth. In any line of work the intensity of the desire for personal improvement is in direct proportion to the stimulus it receives. A physician, a lawyer, or an engineer who lacks in professional knowledge finds himself unable to undertake important cases, and increases his professional equipment in order that he may do better work and command larger pay. These professions being on a competitive basis, what a man can earn in them depends upon what he can convince others that he is worth. Teaching, on the other hand, is virtually a state monopoly, into which competitive conditions enter but slightly. All begin at about the same level, often all are advanced in pay at about the same rate, and usually all reach the maximum far too early in their teaching career.

A teacher is no exception to the rule that most people do their best work when under a constant stimulus to professional activity. This stimulus, too, needs to be kept up

for a rather long period of time, until the habit of keeping professionally active has been well established. A salary schedule, based in part on the kind and amount of professional preparation, and only in part on years of service, and with additional rewards for professional growth and demonstrated efficiency after the common maximum has been reached, offers one of the best means for providing the proper stimulus for further professional development. The institution of a salary schedule for elementary-school teachers as well as for secondary-school teachers, based in part upon merit, may not be particularly easy of accomplishment, but it seems probable that in time the public will demand its institution as evidence that the money it grants for annual maintenance is wisely expended.

5. Salary based on training and service

The single-salary schedule plan. Within recent years, with the marked increase in the number of normal-trained and college-educated teachers entering the work of our city schools, the tendency to seek college-educated women for elementary-school service, the pressure to abolish distinctions in pay between elementary- and secondary-school service, and with the marked increase in the cost of living, there has been a pronounced tendency toward the introduction of a type of salary schedule which places recognition on training and experience as the two main factors to be considered. Applied to a school system as a whole such a plan would abolish salary differences, given equal training and experience, between teachers in the different parts of a school system, and would provide for a large degree of flexibility in the adjustment of teachers to positions. This new plan has come to be known as the Single-Salary Schedule.

A salary schedule constructed on this combined basis

would, in its simplest form, be somewhat as follows, assuming increments of \$150 for each year of additional scholarship and \$60 for each year of added service as a teacher:

YEARS OF APPROVED TRAINING BEYOND COMPLETION OF A FOUR-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE	BEGINNING SALARY IN SCHOOL SYS- TEM, FOR ALL TEACHERS	UNIFORM YEARLY INCREMENT FOR SERVICE	YEARS THIS PAYABLE FOR	MAXIMUM SALARY ATTAIN- ABLE
Graduate of high school only . .	\$1300	\$60	10	\$1900
One year's additional training .	1450	60	10	2050
Two years' additional training .	1600	60	10	2200
Three years' additional training .	1750	60	10	2350
Four years' additional training (A.B.).....	1900	60	12	2620
Five years' additional training (A.M.).....	2050	60	12	2770
Six years' additional training . .	2200	60	12	2920
Seven years' additional training (Ph.D.).....	2350	60	12	3070

Cities might begin only with two-year normal-trained teachers, in which case the schedule would begin with \$1600, on the third line.

In the simple form given above it will be seen that this type of salary schedule eliminates all questions of merit and efficiency.

Combination plans. This single-salary type of schedule could, however, easily be combined with some form of an efficiency rating. One plan would be to institute one or two or three "halts" in the automatic increases, as described on pages 382-83.

Following the plan given on page 383, these halts would come normally at the end of the third, sixth, and eleventh years. Assuming that no promotional examination is used, teachers attaining a rating equivalent to "good" would pass the first "halt," teachers rated as "very good" would be advanced beyond the second "halt," but only teachers rated as "very superior" would pass the third "halt."

Another plan would be to use an efficiency rating for all teachers, in conjunction with the above single-salary sched-

ule, there being an annual classification of teachers before awarding the automatic increases. For example, on the basis of combined supervisory ratings all teachers might be classified into the following groups:

- (a) Teachers who are entirely satisfactory.
- (b) Teachers whose work is not entirely satisfactory, but who have made an earnest effort to improve and who give promise sufficient to warrant their retention.
- (c) Teachers whose work and attitude are so unsatisfactory that they should be put back to probationary tenure, or whose promise is so small as not to warrant their retention.

Teachers in group (a) would be given the automatic advances without question; those in group (b) presumably would be given the annual increase, but might not receive such, as seemed best to the superintendent, board, or a committee in charge; while group (c) would not be advanced in salary even should circumstances compel their temporary retention.

6. *Essential features of a good salary schedule*

Summary of preceding discussion. Summarizing the preceding discussion, the essential features of a good salary schedule for teachers then may be stated to be about as follows:

1. A high enough beginning salary to enable the city to secure well-trained and well-educated teachers for the service, but not too high.
2. Small automatic annual salary increases for a period of years, say six to eight years, during which time the teacher is gaining competency and reaching a point beyond which increase in teaching efficiency usually is small without further professional preparation. This common maximum should represent a satisfactory living wage for a person with the habits, instincts, and training of a teacher.
3. Provision whereby experienced teachers from elsewhere may

be taken into the system, and started at some point in the scale above that of beginning teachers.

4. Further salary increases, beyond the common maximum, to progressive and capable teachers who meet certain standards, the basis for such payments being so arranged as to stimulate industry, encourage individual improvement, and reward exceptional merit.
5. Such an arrangement of salaries as will permit of the assignment of every teacher to that position or kind of work which he or she can do best, without first considering the salary of the position to which the teacher is to be assigned.
6. Special salaries may, however, be attached to positions calling for special capacity, such as demonstration teachers, or teachers of unruly or incorrigible pupils, to which specially capable teachers may be assigned.
7. Grades in the school service, analogous to those commonly found in the secondary, and college field, could with entire propriety be created for all, with automatic increases in salary within the grade until the maximum for the grade has been reached.
8. For promotion from one grade to another, after the probationary grade, evidence of professional growth and high classroom efficiency should, in general, be required.
9. For such evidence, approved summer-school or other collegiate study may be accepted for professional growth; the high classroom efficiency should be determined by as large a combination of tests of different types, given by different individuals, as is feasible. Better results probably will be obtained if the results of all scoring and tests are open to the inspection of the teacher concerned.
10. The maxima attainable for teachers who remain in the work and make teaching a professional career should be relatively large — from two to two and a half times the beginning salary for the same class of work; but such maxima should not be attainable under about eighteen to twenty years of service, nor without proper evidence of professional proficiency. Those who make teaching a temporary employment should not advance beyond the common maximum for all teachers.
11. There also should be provision for a pension system, or for the placing of teachers in subordinate teaching or clerical posi-

tions, and at lower pay, who, by reason of age, have outlived their usefulness as classroom teachers, so that those who have rendered faithful service but who, due to age or disease, are no longer efficient, can be retired for the good of the schools. Of the two plans the pension system is preferable, though the other has a certain usefulness. A pension system, however, should be a state affair.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What advantage does a city, located in a low-salary and low-standard State, have in the retention of its own certificating machinery? If salaries and standards were high, what advantage would there be in dispensing with it?
2. Is it safe to institute a payment-on-merit plan when the general level of salaries is quite low? Why?
3. What would be reasonable minima and common maxima for elementary-school and high-school teachers in city systems in your State?
4. How do you account for the greater sensitiveness of elementary-school teachers to discrimination between teachers on the basis of efficiency than is the case with high-school teachers?
5. Why is it desirable to postpone the highest possible maximum salary for quite a number of years?
6. Assuming that you thought it wise to give additional salary grants for further study, how much would you add to the yearly salary of a teacher who attended:
 - (a) A summer session in a state normal school?
 - (b) A summer session in a university?
 - (c) Spent a year in further study, after some years of teaching?
 - (d) Spent a summer, a half-year, or a year in foreign travel?
7. What restrictions would you throw around such grants?
8. Would such a plan of grading and appointing and paying teachers as is described on page 383 be good? Would it be feasible?
9. How do you account for the large success of promotional examinations in Kansas City, and the bitter opposition to the plan in Baltimore?

10. Is the promotional-examination idea capable of correlation with the reading-circle idea, as set forth in the previous chapter?
11. What changes or additions would you make in the statement of the essential features of a good salary schedule?
12. Why is it difficult to raise the salaries of teachers in a city up to the level of salaries paid in other branches of the city service?
13. Is a differential in pay, as between men and women, ever desirable? Why? When?
14. Is an extra allowance for dependents, to either sex, a desirable addition to a salary schedule? Why?
15. What are the equities involved in the matter of pensions for teachers?
16. Is the provision of a pension increased pay?
17. What would be the difference between an existence wage, a living wage, and a cultural wage as applied to teachers' salaries?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Compare the plans and forms used for measuring classroom efficiency in the five cities described by Ruediger (pp. 139-46), and state which is the best, and why.
2. Of the promotional examination plans described by Ruediger (pp. 117-39), which do you consider the best, and why? (See also *Proceedings of National Education Association*, 1905, pp. 241-53, for a further description of plans in use.)
3. Make a study of teachers' pay from the point of view of economic law. (Burgess, Chancellor, Cotton, Evenden, Moehlman.)
4. Make a study of rating scales, and report on their construction, value, and usefulness. (Evenden, Lewis, Knapp, Hebb, Sears, Thompson.)
5. Make a study of Russell's pay and promotional plan, and report as to its adaptability and usefulness.
6. Make a study of the single salary schedule plan, and report on its soundness and usefulness.

PROBLEMS

1. Assume that you have been elected superintendent of a city of 35,000 inhabitants, employing a total of 265 teachers.

The board has never adopted a salary schedule, except that the minimum for the grades has been \$1300 and for the high school \$1500. Additional salary grants of \$50 a year have been made, as recommended by the superintendent and approved by the teachers' committee, up to about \$1800-1900 for elementary-school teachers, and up to about \$2000-2400 for high-school teachers, but without any fixed maximum. All previous proposals to adopt a salary schedule have been opposed by the older teachers, who have held for age-in-service increases. The school board has instructed you to report a salary schedule to them, based on training, service, and personal efficiency. What kind of a schedule will you propose?

2. Assume that you are in a city employing one hundred and fifty teachers, and already paying relatively good salaries, and that you could have additional funds for advancing salaries only provided you distribute all of it on a basis of merit. Draw up a plan which will be as fair as possible to both teachers and taxpayers, and which will place the maximum emphasis on training and efficiency in classroom work.
3. Combine the salary plan given on page 394, with the tenure and salary plan given on page 383, with "halts" at the end of each rank, as described on pages 394-95, and work out a set of salary-schedule rules that will cover the plan you propose.

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National Education Association: *Salaries in City School Systems, 1926-27.* 64 pp. *Research Bulletin*, vol. 5, no. 2. (March, 1927.)

Salaries for different types of service in cities of different size. More recent data will be issued, from time to time.

Ruediger, W. C.: *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service.* 157 pp. Bulletin no. 3, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1911.

Good information relating to promotional examinations and plans for measuring the efficiency of teachers.

Russell, Chas.: *The Improvement of the City Elementary-School Teacher in Service*. 139 pp. Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 128. New York, 1922.

A very important study of pay schedules as related to training in service.

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A good article on the subject, with good bibliography.

Sharp, R. A.: "Disadvantages and Fallacies in the Single Salary Schedule"; in *Proceedings, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1926, pp. 217-21.

A critical article, from the point of view of the high school teacher.

Small, W. H.: "Should Teachers be Required to Present from Time to Time Evidences of Increased Scholarship?" If so, of what nature? In *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, pp. 326-30.

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Staffelbach, E. H.: "Some Economic Implications of a Single Salary Schedule"; in *American School Board Journal*, vol. 70, pp. 41-42. (February, 1925.)

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Thompson, A. M.: "Report on Teacher Rating"; in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1925, pp. 375-77.

Lays down two fundamental principles, and answers five questions.

Van Sickle, J. H.: "What should be the Basis for the Promotion of Teachers and the Increase of Teachers' Salaries?" In *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1906, pp. 177-83.

A good presentation of the promotional plan for teachers' salaries as adopted in Baltimore.

Van Sickle, J. H.: "Outlines of Methods of Appointing and Advancing Teachers in Various Cities, with Discussion"; in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1905, pp. 244-53.

Brief descriptions of plans then used by Baltimore, Denver, Omaha, Chicago, Kansas City, Lowell, Newark, and New York City, with discussions.

Webster, W. W.: "The Single Salary Schedule"; in *Proceedings, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1926, pp. 227-28.

On the operation of the schedule in Minneapolis.

Wiley, W. E.: "Making a Salary Schedule"; in *American School Board Journal*, vol. 70; pp. 40-41. (June, 1925.)

Plan for rewarding merit without overpaying the mediocre teacher.
Useful rating card given in article.

School Survey Reports. Read the chapter on Teachers' Salaries and Salary Schedules in any good school survey *Report*.

DIVISION III
THE COURSES OF STUDY
CHAPTER XXI
TYPES AND CONSTRUCTION

Types of courses of study. One of the quickest means for determining the ideals and purposes which actuate a school system is to examine the courses of study ¹ prescribed for the schools. School surveyors always make a careful examination of such documents, because from an examination of them the real character of the ideals of the administration as to the purposes of education can quickly be told. Not only can one tell how the courses have been constructed, but also what educational conceptions have guided those who prepared them.

In general, and disregarding minor variations, courses of study group themselves about two main types, though with many courses lying in between and shading more or less into one or the other. These two types may be designated as: (1) the information or knowledge type, which was the common type three to four decades ago, and (2) the development type, which represents more modern conceptions. We shall characterize each of these, briefly, before passing

¹ The expression "courses of study" is used throughout this chapter instead of the more commonly used "course of study," for the reason that the author conceives of each subject, such as reading and literature, history, geography, nature study and elementary science, household arts, etc., as being of such a nature that a course of study in each should be prepared. He also conceives of courses of study as being best arranged when a teacher is presented with a series of longitudinal views of the tool materials, instead of a horizontal cross-section of her particular segments of the different studies.

to a consideration of the work of constructing courses of study.

1. *Information or knowledge courses*

Conceptions underlying. The pedagogical conceptions as to the purpose of education which lies back of the construction of this type of courses of study are that it is the mission of the school to pass on the accumulated knowledge of the past to the next generation; that the mere process of acquiring such knowledge gives good mental discipline; and that knowledge is synonymous with power. Facts, often of no particular importance in themselves, are taught, memorized, and tested for, to be forgotten as soon as the school-grade need for them has passed. Tool studies, as opposed to content studies and constructional activities, are greatly overemphasized, and are made ends in themselves. Years of a child's life often are spent in learning supposed uses of a tool for which there is no use outside of the schoolroom itself; weeks, months, and even years are spent in drilling on problems of a type no man in practical life ever solves, and which can be of no use to any one except a school teacher.

Arithmetic and formal grammar are greatly overemphasized in such courses; reading is taught as an end in itself, instead of as a tool to unlock biography, history, and literature, and to lead to pleasure and enjoyment; the composition work is dull, formal, and unproductive; geography is book geography, while the world before the eyes of teacher and children remains unread and almost unknown; drawing and music are formal; science is minimized, and used largely as a disciplinary study; and any real enrichment of the courses of instruction is wanting. Grade instruction continues throughout the eighth grade, and the secondary-school courses also are bookish, somewhat limited in scope, and uniform for all types of students. Bookish

and abstract work dominates the courses of instruction, to the serious injury of that large minority of children, if not actual majority, who must be educated largely through contact with concrete things.

Dependence upon textbooks. Such courses of study also usually reveal a large dependence upon textbooks, with little or no supplementary or collateral material supplied. Often such courses are carefully subdivided into parts, and the pages in the specified textbooks which are to be taught, in each segment of the course, are enumerated. Often the courses of study depend so thoroughly upon the adopted textbooks that they are very brief, consist almost entirely of a specification of certain pages in certain books and give the teachers no other directions or suggestions than are contained in such books.

The following extract from the courses of study recently in use in one of our American cities illustrates well such courses of instruction.

SEVENTH B GRADE

PART FORTY

Reading

Cry's Fifth Reader, pages 97 to 142.

Arithmetic

Smith's Practical Arithmetic, pages 202 to 216.

Language

Buehler's Grammar, pages 81 to 95 inclusive.

Geography

Natural School Geography, pages 124 to 137, to end of China.
Map Drawing, Humboldt Geographical Notebook, pages 15 to 32, inclusive.

Spelling

Reed's Word Lessons, pages 115 to 127 inclusive.

Writing

Outlook writing system, No. 6.

Drawing

Prang's Textbook of Art Education, Book VI.

Music

New Educational 3d Music Reader.

Physiology

Krohn's Graded Lessons in Physiology and Hygiene, chaps. X, XI, XII.

Similar descriptions are given for each of the fifty-four parts into which the nine years of elementary-school instruction are divided.

Courses of study of the type just illustrated naturally give little liberty to principals or teachers, and hence relieve them of all responsibility in the matter of the adaptation or development of the work. The courses are handed down from above as finished products, and criticism of the courses usually is not especially welcomed by those who prepared them. The result is that both principals and teachers feel that they are relieved of any responsibility for what they contain, or their educational result; the instruction tends to become formal and routine and perfunctory in type; and the teaching force tends slowly to go to sleep, so far as thinking about what they are doing is concerned.¹

¹ "Neither by example nor by precept do such outlines suggest to teachers and principals any thought of the function of each of the prescribed subjects as means of education; any consideration of the relative importance for Portland children, not to mention different groups of Portland children, of the numerous topics treated in textbooks designed for use throughout the country; any correlation in the treatment of closely related subjects; any adaptation of method to the educative ends sought through the use of this textbook material. On the contrary, whether so intended or not, the one all-dominating suggestion of the published course of study for the elementary schools is that so many pages of certain textbooks are to be

The administration of such courses. Such courses of study also are characterized by an almost deadening uniformity, and the work of each teacher and school usually is carefully checked up by supervisors who act as inspectors, and by periodical written tests sent out from the central office. The administration of the courses of study becomes the running of a machine. So much work is laid out to be done, and the proof of the doing of it is to be found in the reports of progress and the quarterly or half-yearly written tests. Anticipation of the examinations dominates the work of instruction; fact reviews are frequent; teachers keep lists of the questions for years preceding, and carefully coach their pupils on the points it is thought may be asked for; and the standing of the schools and teachers is in large part determined by the promotional records. The almost inevitable result is that both teachers and pupils lose sight of the real aims in school work and the purposes of education; the important ends of instruction are subordinated to the cramming of facts; the real abilities of teachers and children are in no way measured by the results; the retardation and elimination of pupils in the system is high; and the paralyzing effect of such an administration of instruction extends through all branches of the school system and is evidenced in the character of the final output of the schools.

Such a knowledge conception of educational aims and purposes also carries uniformity, for all children and schools, as a natural corollary. If knowledge is the important thing, and the courses of study represent the knowledge which it

learned, and at a certain time and in a certain order. This suggestion, reinforced by the system of uniform city examinations from the fourth grade on, and by supervisory inspection, has become the chief guiding purpose in the work of teachers, above the primary grades; it could scarcely be otherwise." (Superintendent Spaulding, in the *Portland School Survey Report*, chap. VIII.)

has been decided should be taught, then the insistence upon the acquirement of the knowledge follows quite naturally. The kind, amount, and order of the subject matter to be learned, by all pupils in all parts of the city, and regardless of age, past experience, future prospects, or physical or mental condition, is uniformly laid down for all. If apothecaries' measure and bank discount in arithmetic, participles and the subjunctive mood in grammar, the geography of Africa and Asia in geography, and algebra and the Merchant of Venice in high-school work are necessary for one, it naturally follows that they should be required of all.

Hence promotions depend upon mastery of such requirements, and children entering from other school systems, where the requirements have not been quite the same, naturally are set back and required to bring up the back work. If the geography of Africa and longitude and time are required in the sixth grade, and a boy enters from elsewhere who has finished the sixth grade but who has not had these subjects, he is held back until he has made up the work in which he is found deficient. If completion of the grammar-school course is a prerequisite for admission to the high school, and a girl of twenty who stopped school at the end of the seventh grade, and who now is soon to be married, desires to enter for a year's work in the domestic science and household arts course, she naturally finds herself unable to do so. Even children in day schools for the deaf, in parental schools, and in schools for those of low mental capacity, often find it necessary to follow the regularly ordained line of instruction, at least in its main outlines.

Effect on the instructing body. The knowledge theory dominates everything; the supervision becomes inspection; the chief educational function of the central office is to say what is to be done and to test the results; the principals become keepers of records and keys and handers-out of

chalk and supplies; and the teachers do their part in a passive and routine manner, thinking little as to the educational significance of what they do, and without interest in educational procedure, so long as their pupils pass and they are let alone by the inspecting authorities.¹

The preparation of such courses of study requires but little thought. To be sure, the knowledge theory underlies their construction, but they could nevertheless be prepared by mathematically dividing off the pages of the textbooks, or by copying what had been prepared elsewhere. The effect of such courses on the schools is as bad as their preparation is easy, and the promulgation and administration of such a type of courses of instruction for the schools is one of the best recipes that can be given for producing an unthinking and a professionally inactive body of principals and teachers. There may be an appearance of smooth-running machinery and an absence of friction, but such quiet activity is due rather to the professional death on all sides than to the quiet hum of a professionally interested teaching body.

While the number of knowledge type courses of study in use to-day is much smaller than was the case a decade or two ago, there are enough of this type still in use to warrant the description just given.

2. *The development type of courses*

Entirely different conceptions as to the nature and purpose of education underlie the preparation of this type of courses of study. Instead of being a fixed and finished product, this type of courses remains a living and developing thing. Instead of facts being conceived as important in themselves, they are regarded as of no real importance until

¹ See chapter VIII, *Portland School Survey Report*, for a description of the workings of such a course of instruction in the schools, and the effect on all concerned.

they have been put to use. Knowledge is conceived of as life experience and inner conviction, and not as the memorization of the accumulated knowledge of the past — as a tool to do something with, and not as a finished product in itself. The whole conception of the school is, in consequence, changed from that of a place where children prepare for life, by learning certain traditional things, to a place where children live life, and are daily brought in contact with such real life experiences as will best prepare them for the harder problems of life which lie just ahead. The children in the community who present themselves for education, and not the more or less traditional subject matter of instruction, are regarded as the real educational problem. Of course, under such a working conception nothing can remain very fixed or very final.

The principal and teacher in such a school system. The principals and teachers in a school system where the courses of instruction have been worked out on a basis of such modern educational conceptions, naturally occupy quite a different position from that of principals and teachers in city school systems which follow the other and older type of courses of study. It now becomes the business of all to think over and study the problems of instruction, with a view to adapting and adjusting the school work to the needs and capacities of the pupils to be instructed.

The chief purpose of the school principals, in so far as their work with teachers relates to instruction, and the chief purpose of the teachers in the classrooms with the children, now become that of acting as stimuli to thinking over the problems at hand. The principal proposes methods of procedure to his teachers, and these are considered and tried out. The teachers propose problems to their pupils, and guide them in thinking, studying, and examining them. In each case the solving is the real thing; not the memorizing of some one else's solution.

In a way, both principals and teachers stand as stimuli to individual activity, as whetstones upon which those stimulated may bring their thinking to a keener edge, and as critics by whose help young people may develop their ability to reason accurately and well. The purpose of instruction is changed from the memorization of facts, to that of fitting pupils for personal responsibilities; from that of accumulating information, to that of training young people to stand on their own feet; from that of transmitting to them the inherited knowledge of the past, to that of preparing them for social efficiency in the life of to-morrow.

Mere drill — often meaningless and unintelligent drill — is replaced largely by lessons involving appreciation and expression; problems that prepare for efficient participation in the work of democratic government are emphasized, and training in solving them is given; and the social relationships of the classroom and the school are directed toward the preparation of socially efficient men and women. The teacher's main duty becomes that of guiding and directing the normal processes of thought and action on the part of pupils, of extending their appreciation into new directions, of widening the horizon of their ambitions, and of stimulating the development of larger and better ideals for life and for service.

The final test for all such work naturally cannot be the term or the quarterly written examination, but must be the judgment of principal and teacher as to whether the pupil has developed sufficiently, under such a course of training, as to be ready to attempt the problems which will meet him in the next grade ahead.

Such courses growing courses. As was said above, nothing can be very fixed or very final in the courses of instruction in a school system actuated by such conceptions as to the purposes for which it exists. There will, of course, be

certain constants in instruction, which will be more or less generally required of all normal children. Certain alternatives also will be proposed, from which schools or teachers may choose. Certain optionals also will be included, which may be taken up or omitted, as the needs of the classes or of the brighter pupils may seem to require.

The courses, though, will be regarded as dynamic rather than static, in the sense that year by year they will be subject to change to meet changing needs, or to bring them more into harmony with the results of the best experience, either within or without the city. The needs of the community and of society are ever changing and growing, while the needs of children vary much, and the adaptation of schools, teaching, and subject matter to meet these changing needs is one of the most important problems connected with the supervision of instruction.

Coöperation of all needed. Such a task of adjustment is too large for one man, even in a small city, though one man, or in a large city a few men, must in a way oversee and guide and in the end decide upon the major changes and adaptations to be made. While the task calls for good leadership at the top, it calls even more for the united efforts of principals and teachers, and all should be made to feel that the adjustment and the adaptation of the courses of instruction to the needs of pupils under their charge is in a way their problem.

This demands flexibility in place of the usual rigidity, and the acceptance, as preparation for the next grade ahead, of whatever type of educational experience has seemed most useful to the child or group in the grade below. It also demands that a teaching force be guided by the right kind of educational conceptions and standards of measurement, that they may, in consequence, work along intelligent lines. Changes in the courses of study, changes in the types of

schools, changes in organization within individual schools or individual classrooms, and changes in the immediate aims and methods of instruction should be possible at any time, if, by so doing, the work of the schools may be adapted better to the ever-changing needs of groups of pupils and elements in the community.

Variations between schools. The idea that all children in a city should pursue the same courses of study goes back to the older knowledge conception of educational work, and is indefensible on any modern standpoint as to the nature and purpose of public education. To require all of the children of a State to follow the same courses, as is sometimes done, is, to put it mildly, a still greater educational blunder. In any modern city diverse elements collect together in different parts, and these have different economic, social, cultural, and moral standards. The children vary not only from group to group, but within the different groups as well. One school may be composed largely of the children of recently arrived Italians, another of the children of recently arrived Scandinavians and Russian Jews, another of substantial Germans, another of middle-class Americans of different racial stocks, and another of wealthy professional and business men. Not only the needs, but the possibilities in instruction will vary much in the different schools, while some children in each will equal the best and some the poorest to be found in any other school. The emphasis in instruction will need to be placed somewhat differently in the different schools if the best educational results are to be obtained. Even the schools, as wholes, may be allowed to develop along somewhat different lines.¹ Better to meet such individual differences in the upper grades of the ele-

¹ The city of Indianapolis has for long been a good case in point. The principals and teachers there have been allowed to develop their schools along somewhat different lines, and to give to each an individuality.

mentary school, a differentiation in courses for pupils of different types and destinies is very desirable. In the next chapter the differentiation of courses will be considered more at length.

Experimental rooms or schools. A superintendent of schools in a city working with a developmental type of courses of study ought to have no hesitancy in permitting teachers or schools to try new experiments in instruction, under regulated conditions. On the contrary, he ought to encourage such experimentation. Connected with every school system there ought to be a few experimental rooms. Even if the results prove no better than the methods then in use, or even prove unsatisfactory, the effect of such experimentation on the teaching force is good. It keeps principals and teachers thinking, and tends to prevent the oncoming of that mental crystallization which seems to settle gradually over so many principals and teachers like the hardening of a plaster cast.

Under the direction of superintendent and principals a few of the more reliable teachers should try new experiments in instruction. If these turn out well, it is then easy to introduce them into the schools; if not, they can be let alone. Growth comes from such an open-minded attitude toward new methods and ideas, and not from standing still, repeating the same operations, and following the same methods day after day and year after year.¹

Study of local problems and needs. Too little study of

¹ The introduction of departmental instruction, various types of vocational work, the substitution of German or Spanish in the seventh and eighth grades for English grammar, the omission of arithmetic from the first and second grades, larger emphasis on science, constructional activities in some of the lower grades, parallel courses of different types, and minimum and maximum courses for different children in the same class or grade — all these are examples of the more common types of experiments. The organization of a school in the city after the platoon plan of instruction is a type of an experiment on a larger scale.

the results of the instruction given or of local needs and community problems, on the part of many of our city school systems, is evidenced when a close study is made of the courses of instruction outlined for use in the schools, and of the statistical tables published showing the classification of pupils in the schools. The result is that our schools too often fail to satisfy the needs of either the children or of the community, and, in turn, fail to receive the community support which should be their due. The consequence is a school system satisfying, to only a limited extent, the educational needs of the children; often providing but little specialization of work; and often with many children in the grades who are unable to make proper progress under the type of instruction provided. The study of such a condition at once leads to efforts at the differentiation of instruction.

Our schools, also, too often exist as things apart and by themselves, instead of closely correlating their educational service to the needs of the community served. Our private schools and our Y.M.C.A.'s often are far more successful in this respect than are the public schools. A close study of the social and economic position of a city will not only reveal many unsatisfied educational needs, but will enable the school authorities to so shape and so redirect the instruction as not only to make the schools render a much larger community service, but, at the same time, to prepare pupils better for real success and happiness in life. It is from such larger community service that larger community support, both moral and financial, ultimately must come.

In the following chapter we shall point out how some of these needs have been met by adaptations and adjustments tending to break up the mass idea of instruction.

In both elementary and secondary education there are many opportunities for the elimination of lost motion in instruction, and for the economy of time in passing pupils

along. In part this calls for eliminations in courses, in part for the introduction of new types of educational tools, and in part for adjustments and differentiations in instruction to meet individual and community needs. This latter phase of the question also will be considered more at length in the following chapter. In the remainder of this chapter we desire to consider another phase of the question, and that is how such modern-type flexible, and differentiated courses of study should be prepared.

3. The construction of courses of study

Recent interest in the reorganization of curricula. During the past decade the study and reorganization and reconstruction of curricula, particularly for the elementary school, has attracted an attention never before given to the problem, in a similar period of time, in all our educational history. Curriculum study and curriculum reorganization undertakings have been decidedly the big thing in education in this country, within recent years. The leading educators and the leading educational organizations¹ have given much time and thought to the work, while many of our cities² have embarked on extended and costly curriculum reorganization undertakings. Studies covering a three- to a five-year period have been carried through. Having spent millions of dollars for school buildings, and other millions for teachers to teach in them, our cities are now spending

¹ The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, aided by the Research Division, has done notable work. Six *Yearbooks* (2d to 7th inclusive, 1924-29) have been given over to the work. The National Society for the Study of Education has been another notable contributor.

² Denver, Houston, St. Louis, Los Angeles, and Long Beach are examples of cities where city-wide attacks, at a cost of thousands of dollars, have been carried through. In Denver approximately \$60,000 was spent on the work.

thousands more to see if what the teachers teach in these buildings is after all the best and the most useful type of instruction. Research departments, too, have directed their energies largely in this direction, and an extensive course-of-study-committee organization has been set up. The entire teaching corps in some of our cities has been interested, extensive studies have been carried on, reviewing committees have done their work, and the final results have been approved by boards of education and printed in bulletin form and issued to the schools for trial use. Figure 33, on page 421, shows, in brief outline, something of the type of organization that has been set up for the work.

The curriculum problem. Any set of curricula is an attempt to provide specifications for the manufacture of the future citizenship. With the best of curricula, however, there is certain to be a gap between the instruction outlined to be given and the needs of American life. When we consider that the children in our schools are being prepared, not for the life of to-day so much as for the life of two and three decades in the future, the inevitableness of a gap between the instruction provided and the future needs of our people will be evident. The problem is to reduce this gap to the smallest possible dimensions.¹

From time to time, in our progress as a Nation, the rate of our progress is accelerated by some force, and then our attention is directed anew to the natural lag in the progress

¹ "In a hundred years the public school has lagged behind. It has never caught up with the momentum of industry, business, community life, or politics. Only rarely has it succeeded in dealing with contemporary issues and conditions; never has it anticipated social needs. The masters of the American mind have fashioned the public school as a great conserving agency, and the halo of the past has oriented those who have made the content of our school curriculum. Rarely have educational leaders affirmed for the school a preparatory and prophetic function." (Harold Rugg, in *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, p. 4.)

of instruction in our schools. The World War was such a force, and probably the greatest modifying force which has ever come to stir us into new movement. The changes in the living and thinking of our people as a result of the conflict have been enormous and far-reaching in their effects. We to-day live in a new world, with a new social and industrial life surrounding us.

To give to our youth an intelligent understanding of this new and exceedingly complicated social and industrial world which has been ushered in we now see to be one of the main functions of the school. Contemporary American civilization and its needs, both now and in the years to come, we now realize to be of greater importance as a subject for study than is the civilization of the past, important as this past has been. To carry these new conceptions as to the function of the school over into the instruction of the classroom has called not only for extensive curriculum reorganization, but for a redirection of the work of the school as well. These new conceptions, in turn, have called for new thinking, as to what we teach and why we teach it, on the part of all concerned from superintendent down to classroom teacher.

Organization for the work. In a small city school system the organization for curriculum study and revision has usually been quite simple, the superintendent of schools, the principals, and committees of classroom teachers working together in a somewhat informal manner at the problem. In larger cities a more definite organization for the work has been felt desirable. Figure 33 gives, in larger outlines only, a form of organization that a city of medium size might be expected to employ.

The best results probably have been secured when the following groups have worked at the problem:

1. The administrative and supervisory staff.
2. The subject-matter specialists.

3. The director of research, or of curriculum revision.
4. Representative interested lay citizens.
5. The classroom teachers.

The administrative and supervisory group, while ultimately responsible for the final result, have large responsibility in the direction of the organization created for work, and

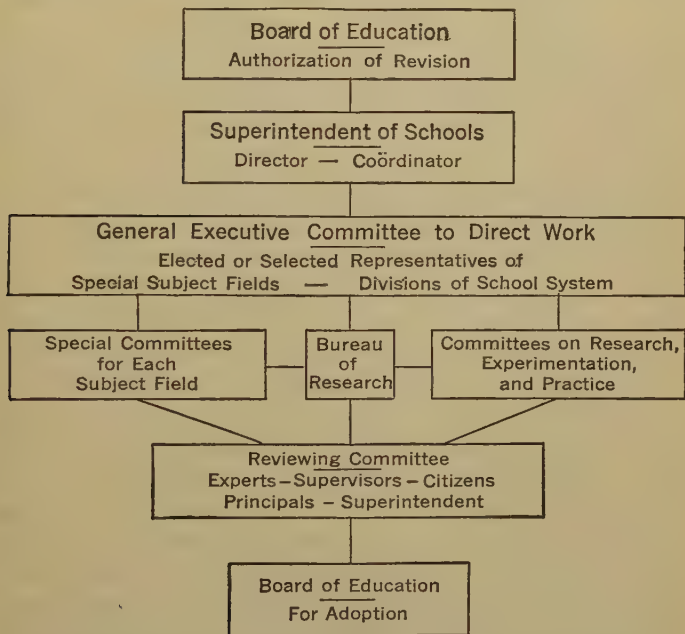


FIG. 33. SKELETON ORGANIZATION-PLAN FOR COURSE OF STUDY REVISION

for the provision of opportunity, books, and conditions for effective study and creative effort. As the work progresses and as each part of it nears a conclusion, this group also is responsible for a critical evaluation of what has been accomplished. The subject-matter specialists contribute to

insure modern points of view, accuracy, balance, and proportion. The director of research contributes by evaluating the soundness of proposed procedures, and in overseeing the testing out in the schools of what has been produced. In case no such person is employed by the school system, this duty then falls back on the administrative and supervisory staff. The intelligent lay citizen, represented in a small selected committee, often can contribute by criticism and suggestions that tend to produce a more practical result.

An important contributor to the work of curriculum revision is the classroom teacher. More than any one else she has noted weak points in the old directions and in current procedures, and this knowledge and experience should be gathered up by committees and focused on the work of curriculum revision. If teachers can be relieved of classroom duties, for a time, to serve on committees, as has been done where extensive curriculum revision work has been carried on, there are experienced and able teachers in every city school system who can contribute much that is valuable to this kind of a coöperative undertaking. In helping to formulate new directions, suggest new procedures, test out what seem to be desirable new practices or lines of work, and in the further continued revision of the outlines produced, an interested group of teachers can be made very helpful and very useful to those who, after all, must bear the chief responsibility for what is done.¹ The fullest possible democratic opportunity should be given teachers to contribute to the organization of the instruction which they themselves are giving. While the fundamental research underlying

¹ "To expect committees of teachers, at the time that they are teaching, and without ample opportunity for special study, to take the initiative in curriculum formulation, or even to assume equal responsibility, is, in the opinion of the writer, to place the burden on those who are least able to bear it." (F. N. Freeman, in *Second Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1924, p. 47.)

sound curriculum revision must be done by specialists, the classroom teacher can contribute much, in the light of her experience, to curriculum adaptation and revision.

By-products of this work. The final results of all this work, as expressed in the printed curricula which have been prepared, undoubtedly have been better than was obtained under the old plan whereby the superintendent of schools, or the superintendent and his immediate assistants, wrote out the courses of study and issued them in printed form for the teachers to use and to follow. A far larger number of interested persons have worked at the problem, and the collective work of more minds has produced, in general, a better result. The final results, too, have been tested out in the city classrooms, or in experimental schools, under far more sympathetic conditions. Far more important than the final results as expressed in printed courses, however, have been the by-products of the work.

The experience of cities which have carried through a coöperative study has been that the work has developed new leaders from among the classroom teachers, awakened a new interest in teaching, led to a markedly increased interest in professional thought, stimulated a new desire to study professional literature so as to be informed as to educational progress,¹ imparted a deeper insight as to aims and purposes in instruction, caused teachers to request professional supervision, awakened a new spirit of coöperation between the classroom teachers and the administrative officers of the

¹ "No problem of the school system possesses such large possibilities of bringing stimulus and growth to the teaching staff as the problem of keeping the curriculum up to date. The modernized curriculum reflects at once every progressive step in all fields related to education. Helping to keep the school system's course of study abreast of the times obliges all, who carry these duties faithfully, to read and study the constant additions to basic knowledge and the latest approved practices." (H. B. Wilson, in *Second Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1924, p. 37.)

school system, led principals and teachers to work better together, made the teachers better able and more interested in interpreting the schools to the public, and in turn led to a new interest in the work of the schools on the part of the public itself.¹

The superintendent's guiding hand. While doing much to stimulate principals and teachers to activity in arranging subject matter and materials, investigating and evaluating new practices, and in adapting the course of instruction to the needs of the pupils, the superintendent's larger insight into individual and community needs and educational processes should make his judgment worth more than that of his subordinates in the final determinations as to means and ends. The teachers in his schools, and his assistants, may know more than he as to what is possible in their particular classes, or lines of work, but he should have a more fundamental guiding philosophy for the educative process, he should be in closer touch than they with procedure elsewhere, and he should see better than they the needs of the child and of the school system as a whole. He should be also, by the very nature of his contacts, in closer touch than they with the conditions and needs of the community served by the schools. While working with teachers and principals and assistants in the construction and the continual modification of the courses of instruction for the schools, it must be primarily the function of the superintendent to "throw into relief certain organizing and unifying principles which must ever form the light of guidance to teachers, thereby lifting them out of the fragmentary one-year view of both subject

¹ See especially the results in Berkeley, Denver, Houston, and Rochester, as described by Kyte (*Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. 9, pp. 517-36), Newlon (*Proceedings, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1925, pp. 170-71), Oberholtzer (*Proceedings, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1926, pp. 168-75), and Bobbitt (*Elementary School Journal*, vol. 21, pp. 607-15.)

matter and child-life — which school classification imposes — and giving them glimpses of the unity and wholeness of both, which are essential to any adequate perspective of educational values or of the educative process as a whole.”¹ It is such professional leadership which serves to illuminate and vitalize the details of schoolroom procedure.

In the small city the superintendent of schools naturally will be closer to his teachers in the administration of the courses of study than can be the case in a large city. In the former he will need to do much of the planning, can personally assist individual principals and teachers in adapting and modifying the courses to meet local or temporary situations, and can closely supervise the teachers in carrying out the work decided upon. In the large city he must work largely through assistant superintendents, special supervisors, principals, and committees of his teachers.²

The superintendent and the courses of study. Whatever else the superintendent of schools may be, the real and final test of his worth and efficiency must lie in the knowledge he possesses as to means and purposes in the education of children; and, as a result of such knowledge, the influence he can exert on the instruction given in the schools through

¹ Elson, W. H., in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, p. 189.

² Yet in both cases “greatest good will come if he seeks constantly to raise the ideals of teachers, giving freedom to use their ability to realize these ideals, stimulating initiative in every way in principals and teachers — by relying in the details of their work, both in matter and method, largely on their judgment; by enabling them to feel that they are true factors in the life of the school; by stimulating a sense of personal and professional responsibility and self-esteem; consequently, by framing the course of study on broad lines which may secure a healthy unity, but avoid the pitfalls of deadly uniformity; by encouraging discussion, and personal and professional research; by judiciously commending success; by tactful criticism; by free recognition of merit and the elimination of manifest incompetency. To this may be added the inspiration of his own example, and occasional messages from aggressive colleagues.” (Elson, W. H., in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, p. 191.)

the work of making, moulding, and administering of the different courses of study. Organizer he must at times be, and administrator he must daily be, but his work in organizing and administering are, after all, merely contributory to his larger success as the educational leader of the school system, and, in a sense, the educational leader of his community as well. In shaping the construction and the adaptation of the courses of instruction for his schools, and in the interpretation of means and ends in educational procedure, the real measure of his competence for the position of superintendent of schools is to be found. Here, if anywhere, he should be, *par excellence*, the expert; here his knowledge as a specialist in educational matters should stand forth distinctly; here should be evident that large professional insight which makes him the natural leader of all his subordinates in the educational department; here he can render the services of which the schools stand most in need. All organization and administration should be contributory to this important end.¹

For such conspicuous educational service the superintendent must be master of his calling. If he is not, he cannot expect to exert much really helpful influence on the work of the schools. Mastery, though, comes, in part, from years of practical experience, but also, in part, from careful professional study and preparation. To mould the thought of his assistants and principals and teachers calls

¹ "It is not easy to keep a clear perspective of values among the various details that press for attention in the routine of school administration. An active superintendent finds it easy to assume duties akin to those of a clerk of supplies or purchasing agent; to become a gatherer of statistics; to supervise buildings and grounds, with incidental attention to repairs and janitors; to select sites and superintend the construction of buildings; to find himself performing mere clerical duties; these and other details lose him to the real purpose for which he, officially, exists, which is: to raise the standard of teaching and to improve the quality of instruction in the schools." (Superintendent Elson, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1904, p. 188.)

for large educational insight and sound pedagogical knowledge, and these are a resultant of study and thought, tested by school experience. It is now that the years of preparatory study and work in minor executive positions, the importance of which has been emphasized in an earlier chapter,¹ will become apparent.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Would efficiency in other lines excuse a superintendent of schools from not knowing much about courses of study?
2. Why is an examination of the printed courses of study the best single index as to the character of the school system maintained? What would be a second good index?
3. Contrast the educational theory underlying knowledge-type courses of study and development-type courses of study. Why is uniformity the natural corollary of the former?
4. What do you understand to be meant by tool and by content studies? By "fads" in courses of study?
5. In what kind of a school system will the so-called "fads" receive most attention?
6. Why is the public so slow to appreciate the value of the newer studies?
7. State the objections to courses of study based upon pages in textbooks.
8. What is the objection to testing the efficiency of instruction by periodical examinations, on questions sent out from the superintendent's office?
9. Should a girl who cannot get the work in arithmetic, or a boy who cannot get the work in grammar, be allowed to go on into the next grade?
10. Should the same courses of study be followed in special-type schools as in the regular schools?
11. Should lessons and work leading to appreciation and expression be made of as much importance as lessons and work whose aim is drill? What is the place and importance of drill in education?
12. What do you think of the idea of allowing different-type courses in different parts of a city?

¹ Chapter XIV.

13. What about the argument, in cities where there is much changing of residence, that courses should be uniform in all schools so as to facilitate transfers of pupils from school to school?
14. Why do schoolmasters so commonly think of children in terms of courses of study, instead of courses of study in terms of children?
15. Will a school system closely adapted to local needs cost more to run than a traditional school? Why? Why will such a school, however, be supported better by the people, if they understand what is being done?
16. After reading the section on developmental courses, summarize your idea of what education consists in.
17. Explain the large recent interest in curriculum study.
18. Do you think that the earlier tests and measurement movement has had anything to do with the stimulation of this new interest? If so, what?
19. State the advantage of enlisting the interest and services of the classroom teacher in curriculum study and revision.
20. Characterize the part a good superintendent of schools must play in guiding such work.
21. What would be the work of reviewing committees?
22. Is the long way around of working through curriculum committees better than the short way through of having the superintendent's office do the work? Why?
23. After a city has finally evolved a set of satisfactory curricula, why would it not be a good plan for other cities, of somewhat similar size and conditions, to buy sets from the first city and use them, instead of trying to construct their own?
24. Similarly, why would it not be a good plan for a superintendent, in a smaller city, to make courses of study for his system by copying the best ideas which have been worked out experimentally elsewhere?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Read chapter VIII of the *Portland School Survey Report*, and then look over some other survey reports to see if you find somewhat similar course-of-study conditions described elsewhere.
2. Examine three or four printed courses of study, choosing

shorter ones, and then try to evaluate the school system from the courses examined.

3. The outcomes of a coöperative curriculum study, as described for Berkeley, Denver, Houston, Rochester. (Footnote 1, p. 424.)
4. Read Rugg's historical statement of curriculum development, in *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, and summarize briefly what he presents.
5. Run through Harap and Bobbitt, and report briefly as to what they present as to the technique of curriculum making.
6. The place and work of the superintendent of schools in a local curriculum undertaking.
7. What are some of the major problems of educational philosophy involved in curriculum revision, and some of the important criteria to be used in reviewing the final results?
8. Examples of progressive curriculum construction in public schools. (*Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I.)

PROBLEMS

1. Suppose that you have just been elected superintendent of schools in a city of 150,000 inhabitants, the schools of which are in need of many changes. In particular the courses of study need a general overhauling. Draw up an outline of the facts concerning the city, the people, and their needs you would think it desirable to know to guide you in reorganizing the instruction in the schools.
2. Suppose that instead you decide on a coöperative study with your teachers. Draw up a chart that will show the type of organization you would create for the work, and the responsibilities to be borne by each part of the organization.
3. Assume a city of 60,000 inhabitants, located in an agricultural section, but itself a railroad, manufacturing, and jobbing center. Assume a population that is 12 per cent negro, 20 per cent south European, and 16 per cent children of school age. List the needs of this city from the point of view of curriculum construction.
4. Suppose that the school system of the above city does not include kindergartens, and that you desire their introduction.

Draw up a report for your board giving the reasons for your recommendation, plans for their introduction, and estimates of probable costs.

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School Survey Reports. The chapter on Curriculum in any modern school survey *Report* will prove to be good supplemental reading for this chapter.

CHAPTER XXII

ADJUSTMENTS AND DIFFERENTIATIONS

IN the preceding chapter we traced the change in the conception as to the nature and purpose of courses of study which has marked development in this country since around the beginning of the present century. In this chapter we shall trace the further attempts to adjust instruction to the varying needs of pupils, beginning with the study of reasons for retardation, and ending with plans for the individual instruction of pupils.

The different attempts which have been made to adjust and differentiate and reorganize instruction, to meet special and individual needs, group themselves around three type plans, and a consideration of these will form the subject matter of this chapter, namely: (1) The study of retardation and acceleration, with attempts to reduce retardation by remedial means; (2) adjustments of instructional procedures to individual differences; and (3) the creation of special classes for special groups of children. We shall consider each of these in the above order.

1. *Retardation and acceleration*

The average course of study. The courses of study for our city schools usually have been constructed to meet the needs of the so-called "average child," and children of average capacity usually do reasonably well under them. For some of the children, though, some or all of the work is too difficult, or parts of it are wholly unsuited to their needs, and as a result they fail to make proper progress. For other children the work is too easy, and in consequence they learn

habits of idleness by not being worked nearer to their capacities. Many a high school and college loafer belongs to this latter class.

To meet the needs of these different classes of children, certain adjustments and differentiations in courses of study are desirable, in order that each child of school age in the community may find work in the schools that is suited to his powers.

The following figure shows the condition existing in a small city ¹ where the courses of study and the promotional

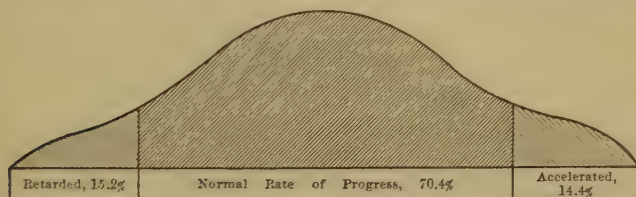


FIG. 34. PROMOTIONAL RESULTS IN A CITY FOLLOWING A COURSE OF STUDY ADJUSTED TO THE AVERAGE CAPACITY OF THE PUPILS

plans had been adjusted to meet the needs of the great mass of pupils. The figure shows that the courses of study also were well balanced between the needs of the gifted and the slow, as practically the same percentage of accelerated and retarded pupils were found in the schools. This showing represents what may be said to be a tolerably satisfactory condition, but one that is by no means common. In an average school of 500 pupils in such a school system, 352 will be advancing regularly with their grade, 76 will be ahead of their regular grade, and 72 will be more or less retarded, due to one cause or another. Few city school systems can show as even a balance as does this one.

¹ From data obtained from a survey of the schools of Owatonna, Minnesota, by Superintendent W. B. Thornburgh, and published in an article entitled "Is your Course Adjusted to the Capacity of your Pupils?" In *School Education*, vol. 34, p. 5. (December, 1914.)

A poorly adjusted course of study. Figure 35 shows a condition in a city ¹ where the courses of study, or the promotional examinations, or both, had not been so adjusted as to permit of the normal progress of a large percentage of the pupils in the schools. Here one child in four was not able to advance with his class, some being two, three, and four years behind their proper age grade, while but eight children in a thousand were one year ahead of their regular grade. Such a condition as is shown in the second figure is not uncommon in our American cities,² though perhaps less common

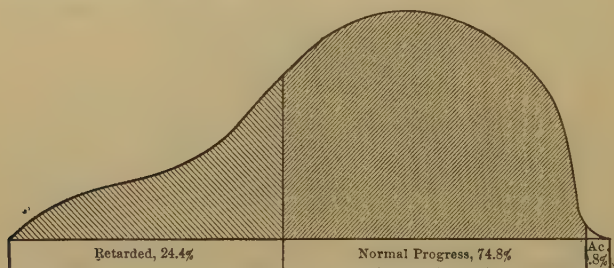


FIG. 35. PROMOTIONAL RESULTS IN A CITY FOLLOWING A KNOWLEDGE-TYPE COURSE OF STUDY, AND WITH QUARTERLY PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATIONS

to-day than was the case a decade or two ago, before attention had been called so forcibly to retardation and its effects.

If the conception as to the need of adjusting the courses of study to meet the ever-varying needs of the pupils, as was

¹ From data given in Table 17 of the *Report of the Survey of the Public School System of Portland*. This table included only those children one or more years behind or ahead. If half years had been taken a little more favorable showing would have been made for the accelerated pupils, but a less favorable one would have resulted for the retarded group.

² The *Report of the Survey of the School System of Butte*, chap. I, and the *Report of a Survey of the School System of Salt Lake City*, chap. IX, both contain much excellent data relating to the age and grade classification of pupils in cities having much more than the normal amount of retardation. Bachman and Ayres (see Bibliography) also give much valuable data.

stated in the preceding chapter, is a correct one, and modern educational theory certainly sustains it, then there is need, in practically all school systems, for a much more careful study of the age-distribution of pupils in the schools, with a view to a better adjustment of the courses of instruction to the needs of pupils.

The results of non-promotion. The result of all unnecessary retardation is a great human waste. In school systems having such conditions as are shown in Figure 35, hundreds of boys and girls are not where they ought to be, and are not doing what they ought to be doing. Boys and girls are in the elementary school, studying the puzzles of arithmetic and the technicalities of English grammar, when they ought to be in the high school or in a vocational school, studying something better suited to their needs and more likely to awaken their interest and enthusiasm. Boys and girls are failing of promotion because of written term examinations or courses of study unsuited to their needs and capacities, and are being prepared to become failures in life. They remain in the lower grades, instead of passing on up, congesting these grades and interfering with the regular instruction of normal pupils; too large for their seats; often unfit associates for the smaller children; usually accomplishing little; and usually being prepared to join the ranks of the inefficient and the unsuccessful.

When the end of the compulsory school-age comes, and the compulsory school law no longer holds them, those who have failed to make a success of their school work usually leave school.¹ If one charts the distribution of pupils, by grades, in any school system which has not made a strong effort to adjust its instruction to child needs, a marked

¹ See Doughton, I.: "Elimination of Pupils in a Small City"; in *American School Board Journal*, vol. 61, pp. 42-44 (September, 1920), for a long-term study of elimination from school.

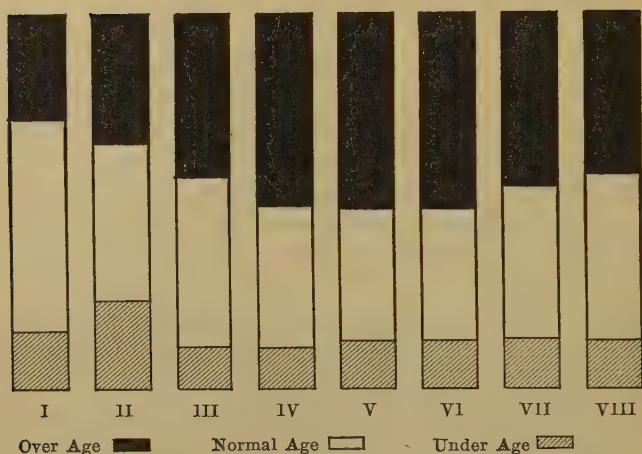


FIG. 36. RETARDATION AND ACCELERATION IN THE GRADES

The above shows a bad condition. Note the increasing retardation up to the sixth grade, after which the compulsory attendance exemption at fourteen years of age begins to reduce the number of over-age pupils in school. In the last two years the brighter pupils who remain (the eighth-grade enrollment was only half that of the fourth grade) make a better showing. (From a study of *Over-Age and Progress* in one of our larger city school systems.)

downward tendency will be noted in the attendance curve at the close of the compulsory school period. When it is considered with what a meager equipment these young people leave the schools, and what a poor preparation they have for intelligent citizenship or for any really effective service, the bad results of such a situation become evident.

The effect of such conditions. The effect of such conditions on the children is very bad. The mental effect of failure is large and tends to destroy self-confidence, whereas the schools ought to be training pupils for success in life. A boy who twice has failed of promotion has probably been prepared to become a failure in life. The effect of failure on girls is equally depressing.

Whenever any large degree of non-promotion or over-age

AGES (in years and months)	KINDER GARTEN	GRADE I		GRADE II		GRADE III		GRADE IV		GRADE V		GRADE VI		GRADE VII		GRADE VIII		TOTAL
		B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	
4 yrs. 9 mos.-5 yrs. 3 mos.	6																	6
5 " 3 " -5 " 9 "	17																	17
5 " 9 " -6 " 3 "	11	18	1															30
6 " 3 " -6 " 9 "	2	16	1	1														36
6 " 9 " -7 " 3 "		10	15	11		1												33
7 " 3 " -7 " 9 "		5	10	13	12	2	1											43
7 " 9 " -8 " 3 "		2	3	9	13	10	1	1										39
8 " 3 " -8 " 9 "				5	10	12	11											38
8 " 9 " -9 " 3 "				3	3	6	12	9	2									35
9 " 3 " -9 " 9 "				1	1	4	7	10	7	2								31
9 " 9 " -10 " 3 "						3	9	9	9	1								35
10 " 3 " -10 " 9 "						1	1	5	7	7								34
10 " 9 " -11 " 3 "						1	1	2	5	8				1				31
11 " 3 " -11 " 9 "						1	1	2	3	5				7	1			23
11 " 9 " -12 " 3 "								1	1	2				6	2			30
12 " 3 " -12 " 9 "										1				4	5	3	1	23
12 " 9 " -13 " 3 "								1	1	2				3	2	5	2	24
13 " 3 " -13 " 9 "								1	1	1				2	2	4	4	19
13 " 9 " -14 " 3 "										1				1	1	1	4	11
14 " 3 " -14 " 9 "																	1	5
14 " 9 " -15 " 3 "																		2
15 " 3 " -15 " 9 "																		
TOTALS.....	36	51	45	42	84	40	39	38	74	35	33	34	29	18	17	13	25	560

FIG. 37. AN AGE-GRADE SCHOOL DISTRIBUTION TABLE

Constructed for a school having 560 pupils, distributed through a kindergarten and eight grades. Enclosed within the heavy lines are the children who are of normal chronological age for the grade, allowing three months' leeway at each end of the grade, or a year and a half for each full year. Children above the heavy lines are accelerated, and those below the heavy lines are retarded. The light line, below the lower heavy line, marks off those who are one year over age.

is detected, the causes ¹ for such conditions should receive careful attention on the part of the principal and the superintendent. Unless such officers carefully study their age- and grade-distribution tables (see Figure 37, on page 439), they seldom realize the extent to which retardation exists in their own schools. Age- and grade-distribution tables for every school should be scrutinized with care, and the different schools should be studied and compared with one another. Sometimes such study will reveal slow schools; sometimes it will reveal the need of "speeding-up" the whole school system.

Charting, in the form of a graph, the results given in the age-grade-distribution table shown on page 439, gives us Figure 38. This graph represents a quite common condition found in schools. The accelerated are too small in number, and the retarded too large. If we assume that intelligence is approximately evenly distributed, and studies show that it is, and that there are approximately as many bright children as dull children, then the number of pupils accelerated, after the second or third grade, ought approximately to balance the number retarded, unless there is some special explanation for the situation in any particular school. Every pupil retarded more than one year should be examined as to physical condition, health habits, intelligence,

¹ Among the more common causes of over-age in the schools are:

1. Lack of previous educational opportunities.
2. Lack of use of English speech.
3. Mental backwardness, which in time will cure itself.
4. Not been "reached" by teachers.
5. Mental deficiency, which will not cure itself.
6. Malnutrition, physical defects, or disease.
7. Bad home conditions.
8. Uniform promotional examinations, and a knowledge-conception of the teaching process.
9. School not suited to pupil's needs.

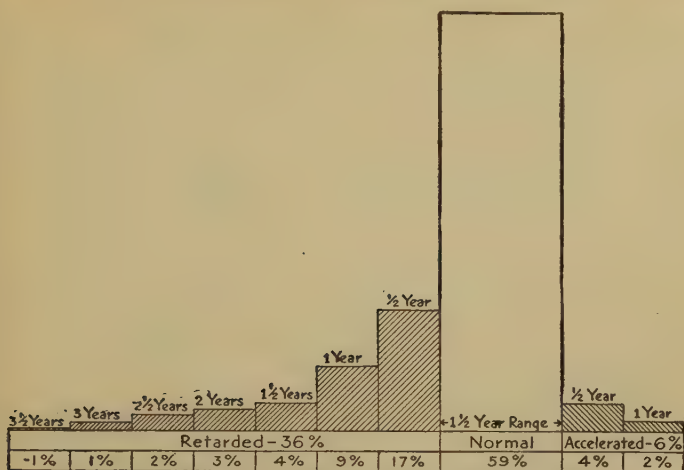


FIG. 38. ACCELERATION AND RETARDATION SHOWN GRAPHICALLY

A pupil distribution for the same school shown in the age-grade distribution chart given in Fig. 37.

home conditions, and the presence of any defects that might explain the slow school progress.

To find the reasons and the remedies for such a condition may require some time. If the retardation is especially heavy in a school system, and no particular attention has been given to the problem for some years past, a concentrated effort will need to be made to find the causes and to reduce it in amount. That this can be done the experience of school systems in many parts of the country shows to be possible.

Promotional rate. One method for studying the problem is to find the rate of non-promotion, by grades, and by schools, and the chief causes for non-promotion by grades and by subjects. Suppose that a tabulation is made of the failures in promotion by grades, for each school, and combined for the entire school system, for the last four semi-

annual promotions, and that the result is as shown in Figure 39. Such a result is by no means uncommon. After a certain amount of holding back in the first grade, promotions go along rather evenly in the second and third grades, and then the percentage not promoted mounts through the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. The pupils who persist to the seventh and eighth grades go along fairly well.

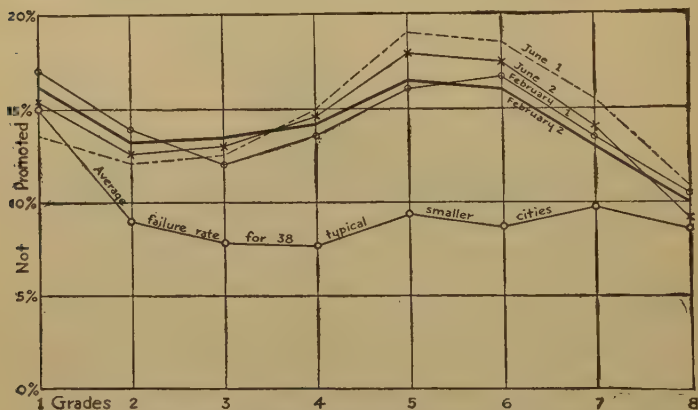


FIG. 39. PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN EACH GRADE NOT PROMOTED, AT LAST FOUR ANNUAL PROMOTIONS

Percentages of failures shown based on promotional failure rate for Cleveland, as at the time of the school survey there. Average failure rate for 38 cities from Deffenbaugh's study, covering 100,000 children.

The importance of a good promotional rate may be seen from the table on page 443, compiled from data given by Ayres, which shows the effects of different annual promotion rates in a school system, assuming that deaths and withdrawals are balanced by new pupils entering.

A new aid in pupil classification. Within recent years an entirely new aid in the proper placement of school children has been made available in the form of the newly devised intelligence tests. By the means of group intelli-

PROMOTION RATE	YEARS REQUIRED FOR CHILD TO COMPLETE EIGHT GRADES	FAILURES AMONG EACH 1000 CHILD- REN IN EIGHT YEARS	NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN EACH 1000 FAIL- ING IN EIGHT YEARS	CHILDREN ONE YEAR OR MORE ABOVE NORMAL AGE FOR GRADES
100	8.00	0	0	0
99	8.08	70	68	3.4
98	8.16	140	132	6.7
97	8.24	210	192	9.9
96	8.33	280	249	12.9
95	8.42	350	302	15.9
94	8.50	420	352	18.7
93	8.60	490	398	21.4
92	8.69	560	442	24.0
91	8.78	630	483	26.4
90	8.89	700	522	28.8
89	8.98	770	558	31.1
88	9.09	840	591	33.3
87	9.19	910	623	35.4
86	9.30	980	652	37.4
85	9.41	1050	679	39.4
84	9.52	1120	705	41.2
83	9.63	1190	729	43.0
82	9.75	1260	751	44.8
81	9.87	1330	771	46.4
80	10.00	1400	790	48.0

gence tests a whole class can be tested at one time, and by means of the individual intelligence test a still finer determination of what the group test has revealed can be made. These tests enable us to determine a pupil's mental age, as distinct from his chronological age, and to prognosticate, within certain limits, his educational future.

From the use of these tests we have found that every unassorted school class contains pupils varying widely in mental age, and hence in their ability to profit by the instruction given. A class all of whom are of the same chronological age may vary widely in mental age, whereas a selected class of the same mental age may vary widely in chronological age. In a general way, those who are oldest

in age for any grade have been found to be lowest in intelligence, and *vice versa*.

Better than any other type of information that can be made available, the intelligence test gives the data from which a pupil's educational possibilities can be best foretold, and his further education be most profitably directed. The many questions that arise in any school system relating to proper grading, promotions, delinquency, choice of studies, educational and vocational guidance, and the handling of sub-normals on the one hand and gifted children on the other, can be handled more intelligently when working with the results of intelligence tests at hand. Alone the intelligence test is by no means an infallible indication as to action to be taken, but used in connection with other evidence it is the best of all indicative tests and measures of ability to do.

The important thing to do for every pupil is to so place him that his ability to work will be most deeply challenged. If advancing him a grade seems the thing to do, what he loses by skipping frequently is more than compensated for by placing him where he will work to better advantage. All that we know as to the psychology of the learning process tells us that it is training in skills, perceptual learning, associative learning, and problem-solving that is important — not the “covering” of the factual side of a course of study.

Need for differentiation in instruction. The presence of large numbers of over-age pupils in a room, who generally are low in ability and who consume time and effort on the part of the teacher, is not fair to other children. Especially to the boy or girl of large capacity, who, rather than the slower one, deserves special attention, is the effect bad. These children of super-normal ability should receive special instruction, be given work up to their capacities, or be pushed along into the high school as rapidly as their matur-

ity will warrant.¹ While the average child needs good attention, for such will form the great bulk of our citizenship, and the child of less than normal ability needs special instruction in differentiated or special classes, as much for the welfare of other children as his own, the really important child in the schools — the one most worth while to the future State — is the boy or girl who is decidedly quicker, brighter, and surer than the average. We have for a long time based our instruction on the needs of the "average child," and we have recently begun to direct some attention to the needs of the child mentally below normal, but so far but little attention has been given to the needs of the supernormal child — the child who represents the best asset of public education. It is from this class of children we must draw our leaders for the future.

To care properly for all three classes of children calls for some sorting of pupils and some differentiation in instruction for the different groups. What is wanted, in each working group in a school system, is a fair balance between the work to be done and the ability of the pupils to do it. Some differentiation in the courses of study provided also is called for if the pupils are to be supplied with instruction suited to their needs and capacities. To a study of the more common adjustments and differentiations employed for this purpose we next turn.

2. *Adjustments to individual differences*

Within the past three or four decades, and largely within the past two, a number of important attempts have been made to solve the problems revealed by our studies of retar-

¹ Starch has estimated that, under proper grouping and promotional conditions 1 per cent of the children could complete the work of the eight grades in 4 years, 2 per cent in 5 years, 9 per cent in 6 years, 20 per cent in 7 years, 33 per cent in 8 years, 21 per cent in 9 years, 9 per cent in 10 years, 2 per cent in 11 years, and 1 per cent in 12 years.

dation and intellectual differences. The proposed solutions have grouped themselves around two main types of adjustment. Under the first type the old class organization has been retained, and attempts have been made to improve the promotional rate by differentiated instruction or more homogeneous grouping. Under the second type the class organization has been sacrificed to individual progress, with individual instruction as found necessary. We will consider each of these type plans.

(a) PLANS RETAINING THE CLASS ORGANIZATION

More frequent promotions. The earliest and probably still the most common attempts to remedy the conditions arising from courses of study not being fully adjusted to individual needs have been along the line of increasing the flexibility of the promotional machinery, thus tending to break up the so-called "lock-step" in the public schools. Under the annual-promotion plan the child who fails of promotion at the end of any year must repeat the grade. This is wasteful of both the school's time and the child's time, and often has a most discouraging effect on the pupil. Similarly, a bright pupil cannot easily go forward under an annual system, because a whole year must be jumped by so doing.

In all our better school systems, even in the small cities, annual promotion has now been replaced by semiannual promotions,¹ the grade being divided into two sections, half a year apart. In some of our larger city school systems, where large buildings permit of such subdivisions, each grade is subdivided into four sections, thus insuring classes only ten weeks apart, so that either failure to advance or the ability

¹ See Chapter XIX of the author's *The Principal and his School* for a more detailed statement than is given here as to the different flexible promotional plans.

to advance more rapidly requires a loss or an advance of but one fourth of a year, instead of a half or a whole year.¹ The semiannual promotion plan is now perhaps the most common of all plans, while the quarterly promotion plan, if coupled with the maintenance of an ungraded room in each building, permits of a very flexible promotional scheme, under which, if properly handled, pupils may advance at almost any desired rate. The chief difficulty with the quarterly promotion plan is that it is not possible in small buildings, or in a small school system.

The Batavia plan. Under any of these plans, however, some pupils will fail to make progress with the group, though the quarterly promotional plan naturally presents the fewest objections in this respect. The Batavia plan is one of our oldest attempts to overcome this difficulty, while retaining the semiannual promotion plan for all.

Figure 40 illustrates the idea. The plan was inaugurated many years ago by Superintendent John Kennedy,² at Batavia, New York, and has been tried here and there, at various times, all over the country. It was worked out there originally not so much as a promotional plan as a device to make use of a number of very large classrooms. The plan was finally extended to include both elementary and secondary schools. In classes of fifty children or less, it was provided that one half of the teacher's time should be free from class work, and be devoted to helping the pupils in their studies. When classes exceeded fifty, a second teacher was put in to assist, recitation work and assisting pupils going on simultaneously. A decrease in the amount of class recitation work and an increase in the amount of pupil assistance

¹ St. Louis has been a pioneer in the establishment and operation of such a quarterly plan.

² Kennedy, John: *The Batavia System of Individual Instruction*. 299 pp. Syracuse, 1914.

and directed study are the essential features of the plan.¹ Figure 40 shows how even progress for all pupils is maintained. The plan tends very materially to decrease retardation and non-promotion, and in this lies its great advantage.

Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
REGULAR TEACHER									
LAGGARDS—ASS'T. TEACHER									

FIG. 40. THE BATAVIA PLAN

Showing a half-year's progress for all pupils under this plan. The coaching of the slow pupils by the assistant teacher makes this equality of progress possible.

It probably also tends toward producing average results, and in this neglects the interests of the brighter pupils, though it might be possible so to use the plan as to advance the brighter pupils more rapidly.

At Mount Vernon, New York, the plan has been perfected so as to use it as a means of bringing up the laggards in the classrooms.² The so-called North Denver plan represents the reverse of the Batavia idea, the brighter pupils there, rather than the slow ones, being singled out for special help.

The Pueblo plan. This plan might be considered as a further development of the Batavia idea, except that instead of large classes, small classes and small groups within classes are used. It is particularly applicable to high-school work, and was so used where first worked out. Under the

¹ See short descriptive article on, in Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education*, vol. 1, p. 331. Also see Bagley, W. C.: *Classroom Management*, pp. 214-24, for a good explanation of the Batavia system.

² See article by Superintendent W. H. Holmes, on the Mount Vernon adaptation, in *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, 1925, Part II, pp. 32-38. Also article by J. T. Palmer, in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. 26, pp. 199-201. (November, 1925.)

best of conditions the plan is as represented in Figure 41. The results shown here are what are obtained to-day in some of our private schools, where each pupil advances at his own

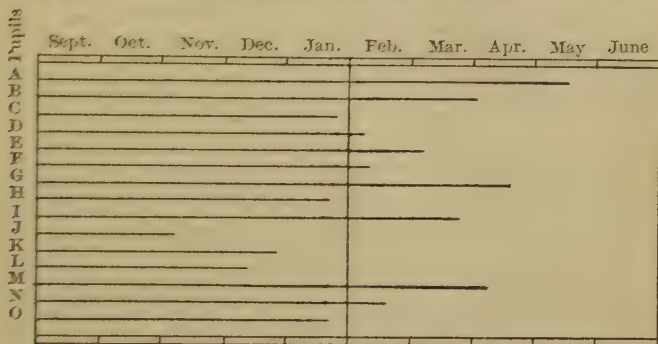


FIG. 41. THE PUEBLO PLAN; INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS

Each line represents the progress of a single pupil during the half-year. Pupil A covered almost a year's work during the time, while the slowest pupil, J, made slightly less than a quarter of a year's progress.

rate of speed. As originally used in Pueblo,¹ Colorado (1888-94), the individual idea was kept prominent. In ordinary use the plan is better represented by Figure 42, which shows a class, say of forty pupils, grouped into five groups progressing at five different rates of speed. These groups naturally are very fluid, and pupils pass from one to another as their progress or lack of progress indicates as desirable. In this form it is practically the same as the so-called Elizabeth, New Jersey, plan,² which was much exploited a generation ago.

This plan makes provision for the slow, the average, and the gifted pupil, and for all gradations in between them, but it requires gradual introduction, a rather superior body of

¹ See article by P. W. Search, in Bibliography.

² Shearer, W. J.: *The Grading of Schools, including a Full Explanation of a Rational Plan of Grading.* 220 pp. New York, 1898.

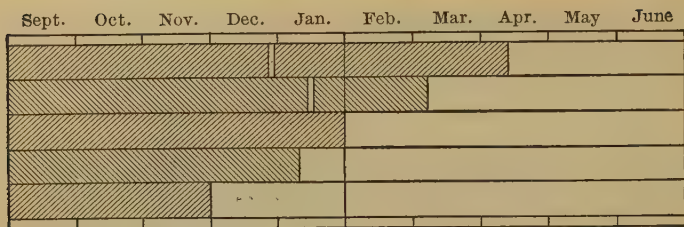


FIG. 42. THE PUEBLO PLAN; GROUP PROGRESS

This shows the plan as used in large schools, the pupils being grouped for administrative purposes into a number of groups, and pupils being moved from one group to another as they advance or fail to advance. The five different groups made different rates of progress during the half-year here shown.

teachers, relatively small classes, and good supervision to secure good results under it. Under this plan non-promotion is practically eliminated, but the rate of progress through the course of study varies greatly.

Special work with laggards. Many school systems to-day do some form of extra work with those who are falling behind. Physical examinations, intelligence testing, and special coaching are common means employed to keep such pupils up to grade. Attention is centered on the difficulties and the needs of pupils who are failing, parents are called into consultation, and the teacher of the ungraded room is called upon for extra and sometimes for remedial instruction. Sometimes the psychologist is needed to diagnose the difficulty, as when the trouble is due to lack of proper visualization, or to a misunderstanding of teaching procedures thought to have been learned. Difficulties in reading, spelling, language work, and arithmetic, which interfere with pupil progress, often yield to such diagnosis and remedial treatment.¹ The experiments made in Los Angeles² would

¹ By such means Detroit, in one year's work, cut down the rate of non-promotion from 14.7 to 8.4 per cent.

² Los Angeles experiments made with slow-moving segregated groups showed that, by six weeks of extra instruction by teachers trained to work

seem to indicate that quite an amount of educational retardation has been caused by faulty instructional methods previously used.

A more systematic plan for looking after laggards, which may be combined with all of the above plans, is to be found in platoon-type schools, where extra periods are given to the instruction of pupils who are experiencing difficulty in any subject. In Gary, for example, a play period or an auditorium period may be missed and a double period of instruction given, and in addition the schools there are open on Saturday mornings for the individual instruction of any pupils who wish to come. Summer school also offers an opportunity for extra instruction. All such plans are remedial in type, and assume somewhat even progress through the grade organization.

Two-track plans. Another variation of the adjustment idea, designed primarily to care for the gifted-pupil group, is that of courses of study designed on the two-track principle, with a number of transfer points along the route of travel to permit of different rates of speed at different times in a pupil's school career. Two type plans embodying this idea will next be described.

The new Cambridge plan. This represents a type of promotional plan which is now much more common than formerly. It also represents an intermediate step in the evolution of a properly adjusted promotional plan. The essential features of it are the provision of two parallel courses of instruction. One is known as the basal or eight-year course, and the other is a parallel course intended specifically for the gifted pupil, making it possible for such to cover the

with such groups, the retardation was reduced 32 per cent, and with those retarded two years or more the reduction was as high as 55 per cent. (See Southerland, A. H.: *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, p. 47.)

A	1			2			3			4			5			6			7			8	
Basal Course 8 Years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
B	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17						
Parallel Course 6 Years	1			2			3			4			5			6							

FIG. 43. THE NEW CAMBRIDGE PLAN

Two parallel elementary-school courses, with one third more work assigned for each year in Course B than in Course A.

eight years of the elementary-school course in six years.¹ Pupils who cannot progress as fast as the eight-year course naturally must fail of promotion, though here, due to each year's work, except the last, being divided into three grades, each failure means the loss of but one third of a year in time. But two grades are provided in the last year, because promotion to the high school can take place but twice a year.

The two courses are so arranged, it will be noticed, that crossing from one to the other may be made at five points without gain or loss, and at other points the difference is not great. This permits of a rate of progress through the grades at anywhere from six to eight years. The Portland, Oregon, plan, shown in Figure 44, illustrates the same idea, except that it will be seen that there the readjustment without loss occurs every one and a half years.

¹ The plan was introduced at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1910, coincidently with the reduction of the elementary-school course from nine to eight years. Previous to that time, for many years, this city used a plan by which the first three grades were the same for all, with a chance to do the remaining six years in anywhere from four to six years, pupils crossing over from one course to another at the middle of the grammar-school course. For all the years of trial under the old plan, statistics from the three high schools showed that those who completed the six years of grammar school in four years did best, the five-year pupils next, and the six-year pupils poorest.

The idea underlying the North Denver plan is the same as that underlying the new Cambridge and the Portland plans, namely, that of giving special attention to the more gifted pupils. The plan of enlarged individual assignments

Grade	First						Second						Third						Fourth											
Part	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24						
First half-year																														
Second half-year																														
Third half-year	Heavy lines indicate division making Normal rate of progress																													

FIG. 44. THE PORTLAND PLAN

Three half-years of work may be done in three half-years (heavy line), or in four half-years (light line).

to the brighter pupils, as practiced in some high schools, is another form of differentiated curriculum while holding together the class organization.

The recent spread in the use of such plans is a most encouraging sign for the future of our democratic society. No form of government is so in need of encouraging its best and developing leaders for its national life as is a government such as ours. The blundering and waste in governmental affairs with us to-day is, in part, a resultant of the mass education which has been so common in the past. A democracy is greatly in need of leaders, and it is from among the gifted children that leaders must be drawn. Their educational

	Elementary School—Grade Work						Departmental Work
	1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade	4th Grade	5th Grade	6th Grade	
Requirements							High School Promotion by subjects. Many courses of different types
C.—Minimum Essentials							Junior High School Promotion by subjects. Academic, Business Household-Arts, and Vocational Courses
B.—Average Course							
A.—Superior Group							
Instruction							Departmental Work

FIG. 45. THE DIFFERENTIATED-COURSE PLAN

This figure shows the plan as worked out originally at Santa Barbara, California, and now in use in many cities.

opportunities should be of the best, whereas it is they who to-day suffer most in retardation under the graded system.

The differentiated course; three-track plans. The fundamental idea underlying this plan is that of advancing all normal pupils evenly during the first six years, and then, by a differentiation of courses and promotion by subjects after the sixth year, so to adapt the courses of instruction to the needs of the pupils as to retain and advance regularly as many as possible. The plan was an attempt at ability grouping, before the days of intelligence testing.

The essential features of this plan are shown in Figure 45, which illustrates the plan as followed for some years at Santa Barbara, California, beginning about 1899. Three parallel courses of instruction were provided for the first six grades, each requiring different amounts of work and intended to be suited to the needs of the slow, the average, and the gifted, and so arranged as to tend to eliminate non-promotion and retardation in these elementary-school

grades. Course C included the minimum essentials in the fundamental elementary-school subjects which were to be required of all, while each of the other courses included larger amounts of work, or a greater enrichment of the instruction, or both. Instead of providing only for the average and the gifted, as in the Cambridge, Portland, and North Denver plans, this plan made a third group for the slow. Unlike these three plans, though, it made no definite provision for the more rapid advancement of the gifted. The important features of this plan are the differentiation of courses, the introduction of departmental instruction, and the promotion by subjects in the last two years of the usual grammar-school course.

The Baltimore experiment. An important modification of this differentiated-course plan was introduced into the schools of Baltimore by Superintendent Van Sickle, somewhere near 1905. There all pupils advanced along the three lines, as shown by Figure 45, until the close of the sixth grade.¹ A number of the schools continued grade instruction through the seventh and eighth grades, then promoting to the high school, or the pupils went out into the world at this point. At a few places in the city, central schools, taught by a departmental plan of instruction and with an especially rich curriculum, were provided, and to these the gifted children (ordinarily Course A pupils), with the consent of their parents, were sent for better and more rapid instruction. The curriculum for such schools was greatly enriched, and was so arranged that a pupil might complete the grades seven to ten inclusive in three years, thus saving a year of public school life and enabling the pupil to enter college at seventeen instead of at eighteen. In 1919 these

¹ Under either plan, some classrooms in almost every building would be composed of C-B, B-B, and B-A groups, with occasionally a room composed of only C's or A's.

central schools evolved into a regular junior high school organization for the city.

Ability-grouping three-track plans. Further modifications of the differentiated-course plan, made in the light of the results of intelligence measurements, have been put into use in a number of cities. Detroit, in 1920, worked out a group intelligence test and gave it to 10,000 B-1st children,¹ and on the basis of the scores obtained divided these children into three ability groups, these named X, Y, and Z. The division was approximately 20 per cent, 60 per cent, and 20 per cent. As these children have progressed upward in the grades the three-track system has been extended upward. All classification being subject to change, children have been moved from group to group as their needs seem to require, though in practice it has been found necessary to change the placement of less than 40 per cent of the children. Los Angeles has done approximately the same type of ability-grouping, and with approximately the same kind of results.

In dealing with these ability groups it was found necessary, as under the Santa Barbara plan, to differentiate the instruction. In Detroit, however, the plan was carried further, and separate courses were used and different teaching methods² were employed with the different groups. For example, the slow-moving (Z) group did not reach a stage

¹ See article, by W. K. Layton, in *Twenty-First Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, 1922, Part II, pp. 123-30. For a further account by S. A. Courtis, see *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, 1925, Part II, pp. 44-47. Of 95,207 children examined up to 1925, individual examinations had been given to 5046 children, and group tests to the remainder.

² Pupils in the slow-moving group could not read and understand textbooks that the rapid-moving group liked best, while textbooks that the slow-moving group found adapted to its needs seemed babyish to the rapid-moving group. The slow-moving group needed textbooks with shorter sentences, simpler sentence structure, and shorter words.

in reading until the B 4 grade that the rapid-moving (X) group passed through in the A 2 grade. In a study of textbooks needed by such groups, made by Franzen, in California, he found a clear need for a differentiation in textbooks, as well as in courses of study and teaching methods, for the three groups.

Both the Detroit and the Los Angeles plans may be considered as a further development of the original Santa Barbara idea.

(b) PLANS SACRIFICING THE CLASS ORGANIZATION

Two type plans for adjustment to individual differences by sacrificing the class organization have been evolved, within the past decade, which are of large importance and should be described here. These are the Dalton plan, and the Winnetka plan.

The Dalton Laboratory Plan. This plan was first introduced into a public school system in the high school of Dalton, Massachusetts, in 1919, though in its inception the plan goes back, in the thinking of its originator, Miss Helen Parkhurst, to 1911. The Dalton Laboratory Plan is to-day the most widely known plan for individual instruction, having been introduced into some 2000 schools in England;¹ numerous schools in Holland, Norway, Poland, Russia, Japan, and China; and into some 200 schools in the United States.

In its essentials the Dalton plan is a social, rather than a curriculum experiment. Using the regular curriculum materials and textbooks, the plan frees the pupil to work in his own way while doing the regular work of the school. Its three principles are stated as: (1) freedom to work as the

¹ The plan has made an especially strong appeal to the English, largely due to their traditions of individual effort and the preparation for examinations.

pupil sees fit; (2) coöperation with others for work; and (3) the budgeting of the pupil's time in order that the amount of work to be done may be done in the allotted time. It is a plan for individualizing instruction, following some of the lines originally tried out by Search. The plan is applicable to any part of the school system above the third grade.

Under the Dalton plan, the curriculum for the year is divided, by subjects, into as many "jobs" as there are months in the school year, and each "job" is further subdivided into twenty "units." For each unit, work sheets are made out to show the pupil what is to be done and how to attack each "unit" of the job. The day begins with a short organization period of from 15 to 30 minutes, followed by a laboratory period of from 2 to 3 hours, followed by a conference period of from 30 to 40 minutes. Laboratories, or subject work-shops, are provided for each subject, but in these pupils spend only the time needed for their "job." A pupil may do all his work, subject by subject and day by day, or he may work continuously on one subject. Each pupil has a "job card" on which to record and measure his progress, and from which he can see at a glance where he stands on each "job." At the end of each month the "jobs" for that month must all be completed.

The plan combines class work, group work, and individual work. The great advantages of the plan, according to its advocates, are that the pupils above all are trained how to manage their time, plan their work, and handle a "job," social relationships are improved, more wholesome attitudes toward work result, and the usual teacher lecturing and imposing of standards are eliminated. In essence, then, it is an administrative device under which the pupils, on an individual basis, master fixed quotas of subject matter within definite periods of time.¹ The essential defect of the

¹ "The Dalton plan, in the writer's opinion, is a philosophy of learning and

plan, according to its opponents, is that it follows the old curriculum too closely, it conceives of childhood as a time primarily for the storing up of knowledge for adult life, and its emphasis has been placed too much on the material of instruction rather than on the teaching procedure aspect of the plan.¹

The Winnetka individual plan. The so-called Winnetka individual system had its inception, in 1913, at the San Francisco Teachers College, where the idea underlying it was developed in connection with the training school. From there the idea was carried by Carleton W. Washburne, a former teacher in the San Francisco school, when he became superintendent of schools in Winnetka, in 1919. It was through his genius and energy that the plan as originally conceived at San Francisco was worked out at Winnetka and made possible of use in a public-school system.

The curriculum at Winnetka is divided into two parts. One part deals with those common knowledges and skills that it is assumed every one needs, and the other part provides for group activities and self-expression subjects. Assuming that all² children need these common essentials,

teaching rather than a detailed method to be adopted *in toto* by any single school. Each school seeking to break the lockstep of the class by individualizing instruction must expect to solve its problems in terms of its local situation. As a result, it is inevitable that so-called Dalton schools should present notable differences in the application of the general principle of individual instruction. It is perhaps desirable that, as a school works out its own method, its plan should become associated with the name of the school rather than with the more general term, Dalton Plan. This would emphasize the necessary independence of the school in studying and solving its own problems." (Ralph I. Underhill, in *School and Society*, vol. 22, p. 337.)

¹ See "Opportunities for Directed Teaching under the Dalton Plan"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. 12, pp. 267-73. (April, 1926.)

² This follows Courtis' outline of an ideal course of study as consisting of: "(1) a series of social projects in which there would be need for the use of

and knowing that children vary much in learning ability, it is the time required to learn that varies, rather than the subject-matter outlines, as under the differentiated-course plan. Pupils may move at their own gait, but the essential work must be mastered. Time thus varies, rather than quality of work. On the other hand, there are no fixed standards in the second part of the curriculum — that concerned with self-expression and group activities. Here all differences in pupil ability are allowed for.

To administer such a curriculum, the day is divided into four parts, as in the Gary plan, and half of both morning and afternoon is given to each phase of the instruction. Pupils do the common-essentials part of the curriculum under individual instruction, and in this work grade lines are all broken down. The work in the essentials is laid off into units, much as under the Dalton plan. Each pupil checks his progress on a work-sheet as he goes along, and when he is 100 per cent perfect he passes on to further work. There are no recitations, the teacher spending her whole time in supervising study and in teaching pupils. No child ever "fails," and no one ever "skips a grade," yet the retardation at Winnetka is not heavy, as Figure 46 shows. The child is on a piece-work basis, and not a time basis.¹

fundamental skills in meaningful situations, and (2) a series of self-instructive, self-appraising practical exercises closely correlated with the project work." (*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, 1925, Part II, p. 112.*)

¹ "Time has been the one measurable factor in education until recently. Consequently, we have laid out our educational system in terms of time units. These have been constant, while the achievement of the pupils within these time units has varied according to individual ability. But with the development of the achievement test movement, it is becoming possible to reverse this order. We now make units of achievement the constant factor, varying the time to fit the individual capacities of the children." (Washburne, C. W.: *Journal of Educational Research*, March, 1922, p. 195.)

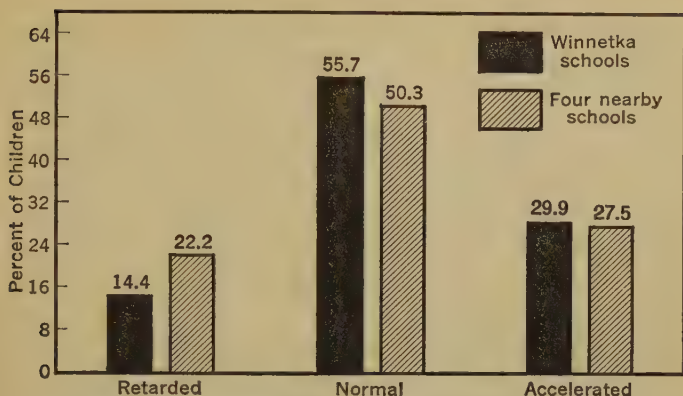


FIG. 46. RETARDATION AND ACCELERATION AT WINNETKA

Compared with the average of four neighboring city school systems. (After data by Washburne.)

For the group-activity part of the curriculum, on the other hand, there are no definite goals, nor are the children tested on what they do. Here full allowance for individual differences is made. The assembly is used, as at Gary, and pupil activities are numerous and varied. Creative work in music and art and literature, dramatization, group projects, field trips, self-government, and hand work of all kinds come in here. Socialization and self-expression here counteract the rigidity of the other half of the curriculum, and form one of the strong features of the plan. The absence of definite goals for the group activities is as valuable a feature of the plan as is the presence of definite goals in the other part of the curriculum, while the absence of a definite time element for the fixed goals gives to the Winnetka plan a decided advantage over the Dalton plan.

The course of our evolution. A review of what has been presented in this and the preceding chapter will reveal a fairly constant evolution in curriculum construction and adaptation for the past three or four decades, a progressive

recognition of the presence of large individual differences among pupils, and the importance of dealing with these intelligently in school work. The change from the old uniform knowledge-type courses of study which we described at the beginning of the preceding chapter, to the differentiated and individualized instructional plans of our most progressive school systems of to-day, has been large indeed. The change has been of far-reaching importance for children, and that it has been toward an individualization in instruction there can be little doubt.

After all that may be done by such plans, however, there still remains a small group of children who do not profit most by the regular work of the school, and who need special classes and teachers if they are to make the best use of the time they can give to school work.

Having become committed as a people to the idea of educating properly all boys and girls in the community, the school authorities of our cities have begun the establishment of schools, classes, and courses of such a nature that every boy and girl may be provided with an education of such a type as each can use to greatest advantage. The fact that different educational treatment is required to deal successfully with different types of boys and girls, and to prepare them for the different vocations, has been felt to furnish no reasonable ground for discrimination between children, and especially according to the still common plan of saying that those who can be educated the traditional way shall be educated, while those who cannot take that kind of education will have to go without.

3. Creation of special classes for special groups

New types of schools. In addition to the differentiations in courses and in the rate of instruction, which attempt to provide for the needs of the normal pupil, many of our cities

have also created new types of schools for the instruction of certain special classes of children who, for one reason or another, are not likely to partake advantageously of the instruction provided in the regular classrooms for ordinary children. The need of such classes often is dictated just as much by reasons of economy in the instruction of normal pupils as by the needs of the special classes of pupils taught. A mere enumeration of the more important of these is all that can be attempted here.¹

1. *Non-English-speaking classes.* For children and youths of normal ability, but who, because of foreign birth, have not a command of the English language. Often subdivided on an age basis. A modification of this form is the *Pre-primer* or *vocabulary* class, organized for children about to enter school and who do not speak English.
2. *Ungraded classes.* For elementary-school pupils who, for any reason, are at a disadvantage in the grades, or who need extra help to enable them to step forward into a more advanced class.
3. *Over-age classes.* For those markedly over-age in the grades, to bring up their deficiencies and to adapt the work better to their needs.
4. *Supplementary classes.* For "left-overs," who are organized into special classes and taught separately, and are admitted to the high school as such, though they have not completed the elementary-school course. Sometimes called *Transfer classes*,² or *Opportunity classes*.
5. *Dexterity classes.* For children of quite limited ability to learn, but who show some promise as finger workers on construction projects.

¹ See *Bridging the Gap; the Transfer Class*. Harvard-Newton Bulletins, no. 3 (1915). A study of such classes in the Newton, Massachusetts, schools.

² For a more detailed description of the most of these special-type schools, see Van Sickle, Witmer, and Ayres, chap. vii, or the volume by Holmes. Also see special articles in Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education*. The article by Heeter describes those schools established in Pittsburgh, and that by Christensen those in Salt Lake City.

6. *Disciplinary classes.* For refractory children of either sex, in part to relieve the regular classroom of these troublesome cases, and in part to adjust work and discipline to the needs of such children.
7. *Parental schools.* For incorrigibles and confirmed truants; for those not capable of being handled in the regular school or in 6. (See Chapter XXVIII for further description.)
8. *Open-air classes.* For tubercular and anæmic children. (See Chapter XXIX.)
9. *Classes for children with speech defects.* For stammerers and stutterers, to correct speech defects. The teacher may travel from school to school, giving instruction to such children, instead of the children being collected in a special school.

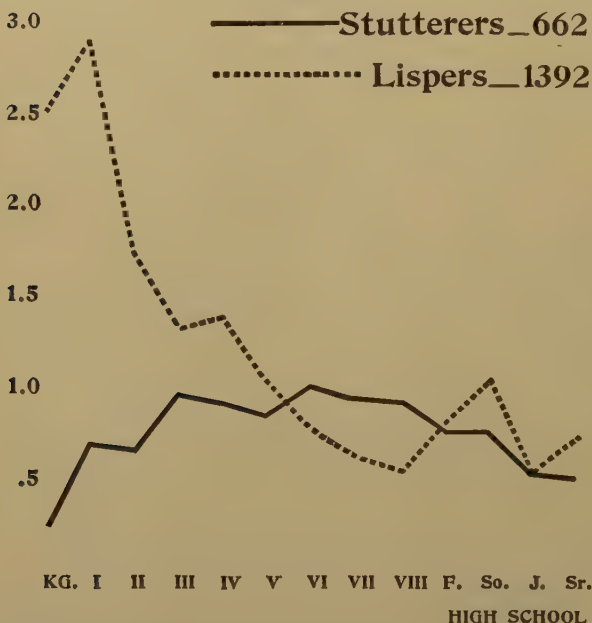


FIG. 47. GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF LISPERs AND STUTTERERS

(From J. E. W. Wallin's *Clinical and Abnormal Psychology*, p. 466.) Showing the importance of early attention to these cases.

10. *Schools for crippled children.* Special instruction in small classes, adapted to the needs and possibilities of crippled children, and without reference to the regular courses of instruction.
11. *Classes for the oral instruction of deaf children.* Special small classes with specially trained teachers, to enable such children to learn to speak and to read the lips.
12. *Classes for blind children.* Special instruction, adapted to the needs and possibilities of blind children.
13. *Classes for sub-normal children.* Special instruction, suited to the needs and possibilities of children deficient in mental capacity, but capable of sufficient education to make them self-supporting, and of training in habits and physical control.
14. *Classes for epileptic children.* Special part-time classes for educable epileptics.
15. *Special classes for gifted children.* Usually some form of the differentiated-course plan, by which special classes for gifted children are formed, to enable them to progress more rapidly.
16. *Industrial classes.*¹ A recent development, and one promising much for the future. Either special courses running through the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, as shown in Figure 45, or special classes for children in certain parts of cities, and substituting industrial work for some of the regular instruction of the school. Some of these have been organized as part-time industrial schools, and some as continuation schools after the eighth grade. Often known as *Pre-Vocational Schools*.
17. *Part-time classes.* Special classes, of many types, for those brought into the school, for a few hours of instruction per week, under the operation of the part-time education laws.
18. *Trade schools.* Of secondary grade, for instruction in the fundamentals underlying the practice of the more common trades and occupations, for both sexes.

¹ The field of industrial and trade education represents a large recent development of public education, which it is not possible to consider in any detail in the space of such a book as this. Leavitt gives many excellent examples of industrial schools, and Snedden states well the argument for such work as a part of the public school system. Cole and Draper are also good on this point.

19. *Special art schools.* Centers where pupils who show special aptitude for drawing may receive special instruction under specially capable teachers.
20. *Home schools.* Schools for girls of upper grammar-school age, and designed to give special preparation for home-keeping. These are special schools, in residences, and are in a way a further development of the domestic-science instruction.
21. *Neighborhood schools.* Schools organized to study and meet the needs of both pupils and parents, considering their heredity, experiences, environments, and material and spiritual needs.¹
22. *Vacation schools.* For the education of children during the summer vacation, along somewhat different lines from the regular instruction of the school year, together with special classes for children who desire to make up back work or to move forward more rapidly.
23. *Evening schools.* These exist in many cities, and are very useful for extension and industrial instruction and for teaching the use of the English tongue to older pupils.
24. *Adult instruction.* As yet but little developed, but likely in the future to become an important part of our educational service.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why does a system of term promotions, based on written examinations, always tend to increase the retardation in the schools?
2. Which form of written examination will tend to increase the retardation most, one where the questions are made out in each school, or one where the questions are uniform for the entire city? Why?
3. Schoolmasters frequently argue that schools which have a very low percentage of retardation do not maintain standards in making promotions. What is the value of this argument?
4. Do you agree with the argument about the importance of caring for the gifted child? If not, why not?
5. Do you see any relation between size of class and retardation?

¹ For a good description of such a school, see the *Report of the Portland School Survey*, chap. xi, pp. 274-78.

6. Why has mass education been a natural development of our political theory as to human equality?
7. How large buildings or school system would one need to institute the quarterly promotion plan?
8. Could a half-yearly promotion plan be introduced in any city?
9. Why is the Pueblo plan a difficult one to carry out? Is it sound educationally?
10. What are the merits and defects of the Cambridge plan?
11. What are the merits and defects of the differentiated-course plan?
12. What would a promotional rate of ninety per cent mean in a large city school system, having ten thousand elementary-school pupils?
13. What are the chief advantages and disadvantages of the Baltimore plan? Is it inapplicable in most school systems?
14. What is the advantage of promotion by subjects, after the sixth grade?
15. Do all improvements in the educational system mean the expenditure of more money for education?
16. Would acceleration and retardation approximately balance one another in a well-graded school? Why?
17. What effect would late entrance to the first grade have on an age-grade distribution table? For how long?
18. Explain the tendency to promote over-age and "nice" pupils, and to hold back young but bright pupils.
19. Would a measure of the effectiveness of a school be the extent to which it eliminates non-promotion? If not, under what conditions would it be a good measure?
20. Explain why, in the different schools of many cities, the intelligence curve for the children tends to be skewed toward one end or the other of the curve, instead of being a symmetrical distribution.
21. Contrast the Dalton and the Winnetka plans, and draw your conclusions, with reasons, as to which is the better for use with (a) elementary-school pupils, and (b) secondary-school pupils. Why?
22. Are any of the special-type schools enumerated in section 3 of this chapter, in your judgment, not within the proper function of public education? Would you add any others to the list; if so, what ones, and why?
23. Do you think that the common argument that American boys

waste time, and do not progress in school as fast as they should, is well founded?

24. Why have continental European school systems had a decided advantage over American school systems in the matter of a more rapid advance of their pupils?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. The more important studies of retardation, beginning with Ayres' 1909 study.
2. Look over the monograph by Buckner, and report on his findings.
3. Read a number of articles describing experiments on the use of intelligence tests for diagnostic purposes, and report on their use.
4. Provisions made by school systems for superior or gifted children.
5. The work of the ungraded teacher.
6. Plans used by school systems in their work with laggards.
7. The Dalton laboratory plan.
8. The Winnetka individual instruction plan.
9. The work of opportunity schools.
10. The organization and administration of a special school for over-age and left-over pupils.
11. The social menace of the feeble-minded (Wallin).

PROBLEMS

1. Take two school systems for which you can obtain data, one of which provides a traditional curriculum, and the other of which has a rich and varied curriculum, and make a chart comparing the two, for a number of years, in percentages of pupils retarded and in school after the close of the compulsory school period.
2. Draw up the classification and promotional scheme that, in your judgment, is best adapted to the needs of a city of 10,000 inhabitants. What types of special schools would you think desirable as an adjunct to such a city system?
3. Assume that you desire to urge upon your board the advisability of introducing, as a part of the city school system, any one of the twenty-four types of special schools enumerated

under section 3. Draw up a report and recommendation to them for such a school, stating need for, giving the educational argument for such, and estimating the probable cost.

4. Take the school shown in Figure 37, page 341, and arrange a grade and room distribution of the classes in such a manner that the first two grades will be divided into three divisions or working groups — C, B, and A — and the remaining grades into two working groups — B and A.

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CHAPTER XXIII

FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATIONAL REORGANIZATIONS

Further progress of the evolutionary movement. In the two chapters which have preceded this one we have traced a progressive movement, covering the past three to four decades, by means of which our city school systems have gradually shifted from the old type of school system, with its uniform and fixed course of study, to a flexible school organization with adjustment of instruction to individual needs the dominant note. The movement has culminated in differentiated courses of study, individual instruction, supervised study, and very flexible promotional procedures. Within recent years a number of special plans for promoting the progress of pupils through the grades have been evolved, of which we described two at the close of the last chapter.

In the present chapter we desire to carry the consideration of the problem of pupil adjustment still further, and to describe here another phase of the problem, namely, the reorganization of the procedures and the structure of the school itself the better to carry out the new idea of adjusting the school to the peculiar needs of the pupils served by each division of it. These reorganizations and reconstructions have taken a number of forms, but for purposes of description may be classified under: (1) reorganizations of the school divisions, or units; and (2) reconstruction and redirection of the school itself. We shall describe each type, briefly, in this order.

1. Reorganization of school divisions

Departmental instruction. The organization found generally in our cities, two decades ago, was an eight-year

elementary school and a four-year high school, with sometimes a year of kindergarten preceding the first year of the elementary school. In two papers read before the National Educational Association, in 1888 and 1892, President Eliot of Harvard questioned this arrangement, and proposed the shortening and the enrichment of the grammar-school course of study. As a result of the discussion which followed, a few schools began to change the organization of the instruction in the upper grades of the grammar school from a straight grade form to what became known as the departmental type.

Under this new arrangement the work of the teachers was specialized, the quality of teacher in time improved, the courses of study somewhat enriched, and the pupils, instead of being taught all day by one teacher, went to four different teachers for a quarter of a day each.¹ This form of departmentalized teaching came to be much used from about 1890 to about 1910. It represented an advance in the organization of school work, and resulted in better teaching by a better school staff. A few new subjects, such as beginning Latin or some modern language, and elementary algebra and geometry, also crept in, while the work in music, drawing, and science was in time much improved. The public school system still remained an 8-4 school system, with at best five years of the elementary school taught under the grade-school plan, and the three upper years taught by the departmental plan.

The junior high school. A few cities, here and there,

¹ The following will show the change in arrangement that may be assumed to have been made when the shift first was made:

GRADE PLAN, FOUR ROOMS

1 teacher of 6B grade
1 teacher of 6A grade
1 teacher of 7A and 7B grades
1 teacher of 8A and 8B grades

DEPARTMENTAL PLAN, FOUR ROOMS

1 teacher of mathematics and drawing
1 teacher of history and geography
1 teacher of language and literature
1 teacher of science and music

faced with a crowded-building situation, had built one or more so-called central schools for the departmentalized grades, and thus had begun the process of bringing the older elementary-school pupils together in larger units. This action, together with the departmental instruction provided, attracted attention and awakened discussion. In 1908, a committee of the National Education Association reported in favor of a six-year course of study for elementary schools, and the year following another report favored an equal division of the twelve-year school system between the elementary and the secondary schools. In 1909 a third report was submitted favoring a six-year elementary-school course of study. Finally, in 1909 at Berkeley (California), and in 1910 at Los Angeles, a new conception of the problem was put into effect by the organization of what were then termed intermediate schools, but which since have taken the name of junior high school.

As this school has been worked out with time it represents a distinctly new creation, intermediate in type between the elementary school on the one hand and the secondary school on the other, and designed to meet the special biological, psychological, social, and moral needs of young people in their early teens. The school is composed, where found in a typical situation, of the last two years taken from the elementary school and the first year taken from the high school. These three years are segregated and placed in a separate building, where there can be provided not only a distinctive type of program, but also a distinctive school as well. This gives a 6-3-3 form of organization to the school system.

After a period of hesitation and experimentation, the new idea was accepted generally as a desirable modification of the old 8-4 form of organization, and within a decade after Los Angeles inaugurated the plan it had been accepted generally, in principle at least, all over the United States.

To-day the 6-3-3 form of organization has been put into effect in by far the great majority of our cities, and is being adopted by many town and county-unit school systems as well.

Figure 45, page 454, shows the resulting form of organization. A number of more or less different and divergent courses, such as literary, academic, business, household arts, and prevocational are offered; instruction is conducted by the departmental plan; the teachers represent some degree of special preparation, usually being college graduates; the equipment resembles a high school in kind; and promotion is by subject instead of by grade.

Theory of the junior high school. The theory underlying the junior high school is that the upper grammar-school grades, if properly taught, require such a degree of preparation that grade instruction cannot be efficient; that the grade-teacher system can and does take little account of the gradual differentiation in tastes and capacities and in the future needs of children which takes place after about the age of twelve; that the grade-teacher system makes no real preparation for beginning high-school work, with a resulting heavy mortality in the ninth grade; that the rational time for an important change in the school life is when the pupil is leaving childhood; and that the period of early adolescence calls for a different type of treatment from that provided by the usual grade instruction.

Another important argument for the junior high school lies in the resulting improvement in the quality of instruction and in the adaptations to individual capacities and needs which result from the provision of junior-high-school training.¹ It offers to pupils the advantages of departmental

¹ See the *Report of the National Education Association Committee on Economy of Time in Education*, Bulletin no. 38, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, pp. 23-25, for a good statement of the arguments for a reorganization of elementary education after the idea here presented.

school work; it offers the possibility of options, in the matter of both studies and courses; it permits of the adaptation of instruction to the needs of both sexes; it tends to postpone for a year the age of leaving school; and it offers opportunities for the development of a type of vocational work not possible under the present plan of grade-school organization.¹

Still another important argument in favor of the 6-3-3 form of organization is that the junior high school, when properly organized and housed, becomes an institution especially designed to meet the peculiar needs — physical, mental, social, and moral — of the early adolescent, as well as the needs of widely varying types of boys and girls in their early adolescent years. To do this adequately, however, calls for special adaptations, both in school plant and curricula, and for types of instruction which the older upper-grade organization and the first years of the high school did not provide.² Through flexible and differentiated group study, intelligent sorting and class placement, failure prevention, the socialization of school work, the establishment of moral values and the right type of habit-reactions, proper individual and group contacts between the sexes, citizenship training, socialized activities, and vocational and educational guidance, the junior high school tries to adapt its opportunities to the peculiar needs of the early adolescent. It thus stands midway, in organization and purpose, between the

¹ Holmes gives a diagram, on page 157 of Part I of his book, showing the differentiations in the school system of New Britain, Connecticut, and the life career to which the instruction leads, which will be interesting to look up at this point.

² "The junior high school is not a glorified elementary school, neither is it a young high school, or a vocational or trade school. Changing the habitat, erecting a new building, and calling it a junior high school does not make it one. A school is a junior high school, only to the extent to which its courses of study and administration conform to the needs of adolescent youth." — (John K. Norton, *Research Bulletin, N.E.A.*, vol. 6, p. 5.)

class-teacher type of organization characteristic of the grade school, and the individual-study type of instruction characteristic of the full adolescent high school. Its work and practices and purposes, when properly conceived, are so thoroughly grounded on biological and psychological foundations that a clear understanding of the possibilities of this new school calls for a clear understanding of the biological and psychological foundations upon which the work of the school is based.

Further reorganization below. The kindergarten, in recent years, has made remarkable strides, both in number of schools and pupils and in the reorganization of its work. With the recent increased interest in problems of child welfare, and the extension of the work of the school nurse, the home visiting teacher, the school clinics, school feeding, and the work of infant-welfare stations, we have seen revealed the large importance, from both a physical and an educational point of view, of the pre-school years. Certain to be closely connected with the kindergarten, in the future, are the pre-school years on the one hand and the first primary years on the other. The problems of child care, feeding, health, nutrition, diseases, abnormalities, preventive hygiene and mental hygiene, and the dissemination among parents of proper ideas as to the care, nurture, training, and instruction of their children, are of tremendous importance to us as a Nation. These problems have a strong educational element in them, and they are closely tied up with the work of the school.

There is a probability that, beginning as an administrative solution of another crowded-building problem, a further reorganization will in time take place in the elementary school which will result in the formation of a combined kindergarten-primary school, beginning at four or four and a half, and including the first two years of the present ele-

mentary school, to be followed by a four-year drill-and-skill and appreciation school with a classroom-teacher type of organization. This would give a 4-4-3-3 type of educational organization. For such a reorganization of school divisions many excellent educational and psychological reasons can be advanced.

Further expansion above. The high school, within the past two decades, has experienced the most rapid expansion ¹ of any part of the public-school system. There have been many forces in our national life which have tended to increase our high school attendance, and particularly since the World War have these new forces been in evidence.

Certainly one reason for this expansion in high-school attendance has been the somewhat general organization of junior high schools. This new type of educational institution has not only provided better for the needs of the young people of the years it serves, but it also has decreased the difficulty of transition that used to exist between the elementary schools and the high school, and has eliminated, to a very large degree, the heavy mortality that used to characterize the first high-school year. Wherever the junior high school has been introduced there has been a marked gain in numbers, not only in those continuing through the elementary-school grades, but also in those entering the high school. New provisions for secondary education usually have had to be made, new high schools have had to be opened, and often differentiated types of high schools have been developed as well.

This remarkable high-school expansion has resulted, in turn, in a remarkable increase in college attendance. Still

¹ In 1890 but three pupils were enrolled in the high schools of the United States for each 1000 of the total population. By 1900 the ratio had increased to seven, and by 1910 to ten. Then the remarkable expansion began, and by 1920 the ratio was twenty-one, and by 1926 it was thirty-two.

more, there has come a strong public demand, more evident as yet in the West and the Middle West than in the East, but certain to be felt there as well in time, that the public school system should be expanded upward, as well as outward, so that at least the first two years of collegiate work might be provided in smaller units and nearer home. As a result of this pressure we have seen the rise of the junior college, covering the Freshman and Sophomore years of college work, and thus adding the thirteenth and the fourteenth years of instruction to the public school system. This has produced a Kn-6-3-3-2 type of educational organization.

Where this upward expansion has taken place, another change not infrequently has taken place as well, and one that seems to be the logical development for the future. The junior high school has annexed the tenth year, making of itself a four-year institution, and the last two years of the high school and the two years of the junior college have coalesced to form another four-year unit. The resulting organization then has become Kn-6-4-4 in form; if the kindergarten-primary development previously described takes place, the final result will be a 4-4-4-4 school system. For this form of organization, also, many excellent psychological and educational reasons may be advanced.¹

The reorganization of the high school. All this reorganization of educational units has been accompanied by a new critical attitude toward the schools themselves. In a preceding chapter we traced the changes for the courses of study, and showed the quite different conceptions as to their nature and purpose which now prevail. Latest to feel the new forces has been the secondary school, but to-day the ferment is working there as well. With the marked increase

¹ See especially the article by Hardy, cited in the references at the close of this chapter.

in new subjects of study, and a new clientele now crowding its classrooms, the function of the high school has been forced into new directions.

So great has become the diversity in pupils and studies in our high schools to-day that these institutions are anxiously casting about for some common denominator that will enable them to simplify their problem. Some have tried for a solution by proposing a simplification of the curriculum by subject-matter eliminations, as has been done for the elementary school; others have proposed a fundamental reorganization by reducing the number of subjects offered and the creation of a number of constants to be required of all; while still others have proposed the reconstruction of the secondary school to make it prepare more directly for the needs of modern industrial and social life.

The first type of proposal has been worked at in many places, and has entered into much of the local curriculum revision work that has been done. The problem has been to discard subjects and subject matter no longer of large usefulness, and to teach only what seemed to be the fundamental and essential materials.

Bobbitt's proposed plan. The second type of proposal, that of a reduction in subjects and the establishment of constants to be required of all, has been worked out best by Bobbitt. He has proposed the following groupings of the high-school course.

I. *Basic studies.* To be taken by all pupils.

1. English usage. Training to read, write, and speak the English language with a reasonable degree of accuracy.
2. Social studies. A reorganized history, citizenship training, and economic studies.
3. Everyday mathematics. Life problems, to train for quantitative thinking.
4. Scientific knowledge. Essentials of physics, chemistry, biology, and astronomy.

5. Physical and mental training. Exercise, hygiene, mental hygiene, preventive and constructive knowledge.
6. Unspecialized practical arts. For both sexes. How to handle tools, make repairs, and do many useful things about home and shop.
7. Literature. English and general, largely for appreciation.
8. Music. For understanding and appreciation.
9. Art. Appreciation of beauty in its various forms.

II. *Extras, or Electives.* Not to be substituted for any basic study.

1. Foreign languages.
2. Advanced mathematics.
3. Science studies.
4. History and development of English literature.
5. History of civilization and progress.
6. Musical study.
7. Art study.
8. Writing; dramatics.

} For technical proficiency
to those of ability.

III. *Vocational studies.* To follow basic and general studies.

This would give but one curriculum for all, except for the electives. The differing abilities of pupils he would care for by dividing the school into ability divisions, with differently weighted courses for the different divisions.

The third type of proposal is well illustrated by the recommendations of Flexner, who held that the modern secondary school should be directed toward preparing young people to understand and care for the institutions of modern society, and to that end its curriculum should emphasize four main fields:

1. *Science.* This to be the central feature of the school.
2. *Industry.* The occupations and trades of the industrial world.
3. *Civics.* History, civic institutions, and the organization of society and government.
4. *Æsthetics.* Literature, languages, music, art.

Each of the subjects taught, he contended, would need rather careful and complete revision to adapt its subject matter to these new ends.

2. *Reconstruction and redirection of the school itself*

The Winnetka plan. The Winnetka plan for individual instruction, described in the preceding chapter, ought to qualify for a place in this chapter under this heading, as it represents a particularly meritorious attempt to break the "lock-step" of the public schools by reorganizing the work of the school. The Dalton laboratory plan, while much more popular, could hardly qualify here, as under it no attempt has been made to develop new textbooks or new curriculum materials. The Dalton plan represents rather a method of attack, under which pupils are trained to work freely and purposefully. The Winnetka plan, on the other hand, represents a reorganization and a redirection of the school, and calls for new teaching materials, methods of work, and new testing procedures.¹ It embraces some of the features of organization of the Gary plan, which we shall next describe, and these, combined with the individual-instruction plan previously developed at San Francisco, represent the essentials of the plan. The flexible rate of progress, and the absence of a normal progress rate for the group and creative activities, are important parts of the Winnetka plan. While as applied at Winnetka only the elementary grades have been used, the plan is applicable to the high-school grades as well. In the vocational school the Winnetka plan should be found especially usable, while the rural school offers an excellent opportunity for full use of the plan.

The Winnetka plan assumes the well-known differences

¹ "More than under the class system, there must be measurement with this plan. Teachers and pupils need to know native capacity in order to estimate the distance that any pupil can go. Equally, they need to know achievement upon the several age-levels by way of knowing whether the pupil has been advancing according to his native capacity. Under such a system there can be no such thing as uniform graduation requirements." (F. Bobbitt, in *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, p. 230.)

as between individual pupils, but, instead of differentiating the pupils into ability groups, the pupils are allowed to differentiate themselves on the basis of what they can do, how far they can travel, and what they can absorb. The ability and efforts of each pupil determines his place and progress.

The Gary plan. A still more fundamental reorganization, or rather a construction along new lines from the bottom upward, is represented by the school system built up at Gary, Indiana, by Superintendent Wirt, between about 1908 and 1915. This represented one of the most original pieces of constructive work ever attempted in American education, and one that, in its various adaptations, has profoundly modified school organization in this country.¹

The schools at Gary run on a four-quarter plan, each quarter of twelve weeks' duration; the school plant is a playground, garden, workshop, social center, library, and a traditional-type school all combined in one; the elementary-school and the high-school work are both given under the same roof; some of the high-school subjects begin as early as the fifth grade; specialization in the instruction and, in consequence, departmental instruction run through the schools; classes in the special outdoor activities and shop work are carried on at the same time as indoor classes, thus doubling the capacity of the school plant; the school day is eight hours long, with the school plant open also on Saturdays; continuation schools and social and recreational centers are

¹ The Gary plan (see *Bulletin* by Burris) in a way arose as a means of facing a school situation created by the very rapid growth of a new city, where every department of the city needed funds for the development of its work. By increasing somewhat the cost of each plant, for larger grounds and for many special rooms, each building was made to care for about twice the ordinary number of pupils, thus materially reducing the initial *per-capita* cost for the school plant. Each building there is a school, a workshop, a playground, a city library, and a civic and community center all in one.

conducted in the same plant in the evenings; and play and vocational work are important features of the instruction in all schools. Each school is, in effect, a world in itself, busily engaged in the work and play and government of its world, and so well do such activities and a highly flexible curriculum meet the needs of all classes that the need for most of the promotional machinery and special-type classes and schools here is eliminated.

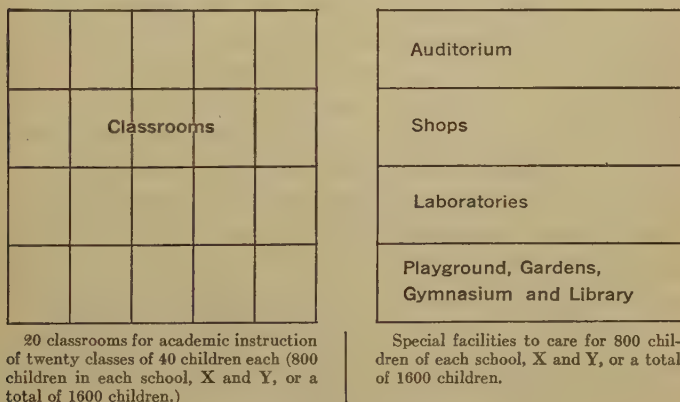


FIG. 48. THE GARY SCHOOL BUILDING PLAN

(After Flexner and Bachman.)

The most characteristic features of the Gary idea are its greatly enriched curriculum, its equipment for work, its double school organization, and the maximum use of facilities. The curriculum provides four distinct types of training: (1) the drill and content subjects, such as the 3 R's, history, geography, and English usage; (2) special work in science, many forms of shop work, and the domestic arts; (3) health and physical education, and play; and (4) auditorium work and social activities. A building to carry such a school program calls for special facilities of many kinds. Half of a Gary building is given to these special facilities, as Figure 48 shows.

The double school organization, which is another marked feature of the Gary plan, is one that has been widely copied. The building is made to carry two schools of equal size, an X school and a Y school. When the X school is using the classrooms for the drill and content work, the Y school is using the auditorium, shops, laboratories and playgrounds, and *vice versa*. This peculiar type of organization was devised originally not so much to save money, as to enable the school to provide and operate economically an enriched and a complicated school program.

The plan calls for good organizations, along lines with which school men are not commonly familiar; large executive capacity, imagination, and clear insight into community needs; teachers of a different type, chiefly in attitude and adaptability; a different type of school plant; and courses of instruction far removed from the knowledge conception of education. The plan is one with which school men should become familiar, and one which could be experimented with advantageously in many of our cities. The plan as carried out at Gary certainly represents a type of social service of which few school systems as at present organized are capable.

The platoon plan. The Gary plan for a time attracted many visitors and much attention, and features of the plan were copied here and there. Many modifications of the idea have been worked out by different city school systems. The most widely accepted of these modifications is known as the platoon school. Embodying many of the desirable features of the Gary school, but planned primarily for the elementary school, and involving somewhat less in building and equipment than at Gary, the platoon school has been adopted as the form of school organization by hundreds of cities, and in all parts of the United States. Detroit, under the leadership of Assistant Superintendent Spain, has been

foremost of our larger cities in the development of platoon schools. Begun there experimentally in 1917, in 1919 the board of education adopted a building policy that called for the platoon school for the first six years, followed by a three-year junior high school, and a three-year high school, thus giving the city a 6-3-3 form of educational organization. To-day approximately 3000 teachers in Detroit are teaching in platoon-type schools.

The essentials of the platoon school, as at Gary, lie in a double school organization — an A school and a B school, an enriched curriculum, departmental instruction, a number of schoolrooms fitted up as special rooms, an auditorium, and good play facilities. The day is lengthened somewhat to give more time for the special instruction, though the time actually spent in the classrooms is decreased.

An outline program for a fifth grade in a platoon school, which is illustrative, would be approximately as follows:

PERIODS		A SCHOOL		B SCHOOL
8.30 to 10.00	Class work	Reading Arithmetic Penmanship	Special work	Auditorium Supervised play { Drawing (2 days) Music (3 days)
		<i>Recess time</i>		
10.00 to 11.30	Special work	Auditorium Gymnasium { Drawing (2 days) Music (3 days)	Class work	<i>Recess time</i> Reading Arithmetic Penmanship
		<i>Noon intermission</i>		
12.30 to 2.00	Class work	Reading Arithmetic Language Spelling	Special work	Literature { Geography (3 days) Science (2 days) Manual training (B) Sewing (G)
		<i>Recess time</i>		
2.00 to 3.30	Special work	Literature { Geography (3 days) Science (2 days) Manual training (B) Sewing (G)	Class work	<i>Recess time</i> Reading Arithmetic Language Spelling

Advantages of the platoon school. The educational advantages which the platoon school is believed to offer may be summarized briefly, as follows:

1. A larger carrying load for a given building.
2. A more constant use of the whole school plant, and particularly beneficial use of the assembly hall, gymnasias, and playgrounds.
3. Addition of specialized instruction in what are often regarded as extras — music, drawing, school gardening, domestic arts, manual training, shop work, and directed play — and without prohibitory costs.
4. The introduction of play and auditorium facilities as integral parts of the course of study.
5. Special emphasis on the work in literature, with a view to its cultural value.
6. Provision for pupils of a school day more varied, more intense, and more interesting. Experience shows that the pupils do not become as fatigued as when they sit in classrooms for long sessions.
7. The partial specialization of classroom teachers, and to a still greater extent the work of the special-activities teachers.
8. A great reduction in the need for special-subject supervisors.
9. Economies in the cost for building, and for general and special supervision.
10. The pupils gain from the different contacts, get the best from a number of teachers, and the exceptional child advances more easily.
11. The auditorium period can be made a distinct addition to the social side of school work.
12. The opportunities for the socialization and Americanization of the pupils are greatly increased.
13. Physical training under direction and supervised play take the place of the old-fashioned pell-mell recess, with its congestion and its disciplinary problems.
14. Class discipline is easier because the pupils do not become restless from long sitting.

It is these advantages that have caused many city school systems to give serious consideration, within recent years, to

the platoon school. The plan calls for better teachers, better organization and administration, better supervision, and better care of children, and is in consequence a somewhat more difficult plan to administer than the old grade-school type of organization. Its educational advantages, however, far outweigh those of the grade school. Under the platoon plan the pupils can still be divided into groups, based on ability to do.

A reorganized and expanded school system. Like the curriculum-reorganization movement, described in a previous chapter, the recent movements for the reorganization of our educational system have aimed to provide a school better adapted to the needs of pupils, and to offer them a richer opportunity and a better preparation for life. The movement also is an attempt to economize time in preparation for useful service. The enrichment of courses of study has had the effect of moving subjects down in the school program, with the result that pupils leaving school to-day have experienced larger and better opportunities for life preparation than were possible a generation ago.

The development of the junior college, in particular, is important, as it means ultimately a shortening of the period of general education to approximately the age of twenty and the completion of the fourteenth school year, thus enabling the pupil to begin his professional preparation or his life work two years earlier than at present. This would be an accomplishment of large social significance, and would put the American public school system more nearly on a par with those of the leading nations of Europe.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What argument is there for the school being concerned about the pre-school years?
2. Show how the departmentalization of teaching tends to produce a better teaching staff.

3. What do you understand to be meant by the statement that the junior high school is particularly designed to "meet the special biological, psychological, social and moral needs" of early adolescent boys and girls?
4. Show in what ways the junior high school is an improvement over departmental instruction.
5. Show how the junior high school provides for individual progress.
6. Does the Bobbitt plan of basic and elective studies appeal to you as desirable, or would you favor differentiated high-school courses adapted to the needs of the different types of high-school pupils? Why?
7. Would Bobbitt's plan be any cheaper to maintain than the present type of high school? Why?
8. How does the platoon type of school organization provide a richer and more stimulating school life?
9. Show how, with a 6-3-3 type of organization, it would be possible to put all pupils through the ninth grade before the end of the compulsory school period.
10. What is your judgment, after reading Bobbitt, Bourne, Burris, and Snedden, on the Gary plan?
11. How far does the form of organization of instruction described by Brown approach the Winnetka plan? The Gary plan?
12. What do you understand to be meant, with reference to the junior high school, by "the building up of personality," "socialization of school work," and "an experimental and exploratory period"?
13. Show the value of the junior college in shortening the preparation for professional study or business life.
14. When the arguments for the platoon type of organization seem so good, how do you account for so many teachers opposing its use?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Departmental teaching, advantages and disadvantages.
2. The junior high school, and its work.
3. The junior college, and what it tries to do.
4. High-school curriculum reorganization.
5. The pre-school movement.
6. The Gary plan of organization.

7. The platoon plan of organization.
8. Read up about some good junior high school and its work.
9. Do the same for some good junior college.

PROBLEMS

1. Calculate the saving for a school system of four sixteen-room grade buildings, employing four special supervisors and ten special teachers, by reorganizing it according to the plan by means of which departmental instruction and all-teachers-specialists are substituted for the typical grade organization.
2. Suppose a twenty-room grade school building, with forty pupils to a room, all rooms full, and that one hundred new pupils appear at the opening of a term. Show how, by reorganizing the school on the platoon plan, these new pupils could all be taken care of.

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DIVISION IV

THE SPECIAL DEPARTMENTS

CHAPTER XXIV

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND EFFICIENCY

A new movement. Wholly within the past two decades one of the most significant movements in all our educational history has arisen. So important has this movement been that much of the recent progress in curriculum construction and in the reorganization of the school system, considered in the three chapters which have preceded this one, would not have been possible without it. Though much has been accomplished since the movement began it is still in its infancy, but so important is it for the future of educational work that it bids fair, in time, to alter the entire character of administrative and supervisory service. We refer to the test and measurement and efficiency movement, the aim of which has been to give scientific accuracy to the educative process.

The movement has been, in a sense, an outgrowth of the child-study movement of the closing decades of the past century, which probably rendered its most important service in turning the attention of students of education to the study of children, rather than of theories about education. Some of the studies made in the eighties and the nineties are still of value, but the technique employed was so unscientific that most of what was done is not now regarded as of any fundamental value.

The beginnings of this new movement are relatively recent. In 1904 Thorndike made the beginnings of a new

method of attack by applying statistical procedures to social and educational problems;¹ in 1905 Strayer and Elliott published their pioneer studies as to costs in city school systems;² in 1908 Stone, a student under Thorndike, published his arithmetic reasoning test, the first standardized achievement test; in 1905 Binet published his scale for the measurement of the intelligence of school children, the result of fifteen years of work; later revisions were published in 1908 and 1911, and American revisions by Goddard in 1911, Kuhlmann in 1912, and Terman and Childs in 1913; Terman's Stanford Revision, now the standard American edition, appeared in 1916; by 1910 Curtis³ and Thorndike had their work of constructing tests with which to measure the results of schoolroom instruction clearly under way; and by 1911 the school-survey movement had begun.⁴ After about 1912 the test and measurement movement was well started and its further development was rapid, and with the Portland (Ore.) school survey of 1913 (317 pp.) and the Butte (Mont.) school survey of 1914 (163 pp.) the school survey movement was given definite form and direction.

The significance of this new movement for education has been large, for it has meant nothing less than the ultimate changing of school administration from guesswork to scientific accuracy; the elimination of favoritism and politics from school work; the substitution of professional experts for the old and successful practitioners; and the changing of school supervision from a temporary or a political job, for

¹ *Mental and Social Measurement*. First edition, 1904.

² G. D. Strayer: *City School Expenses*, 103 pp.; Elliott, E. C.: *Some Fiscal Aspects of Public Education in American Cities*, 101 pp., New York, 1905.

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⁴ The first school surveys were those at Boise, Idaho, 1910 (31 pp.); Montclair, New Jersey, 1911 (28 pp.); Baltimore, Maryland, 1911 (112 pp.), and East Orange, New Jersey, 1912 (64 pp.).

which little or no technical preparation need be made, to that of a highly skilled piece of professional social engineering.¹

The movement is of such large potential importance that any young man of to-day who desires to prepare for school administration in the future should by all means thoroughly familiarize himself with the aims and methods of these new types of administrative technique. This new movement is of such importance, too, that no school system can afford to-day to be without some form of an efficiency organization by means of which to check its work.

The scientific purpose. The scientific purpose of the movement has been to create standards of measurement and units or norms of accomplishment which may be applied to school systems, to individual schools or classes, or to pupils, to determine the efficiency of the work being done, and to substitute these for that personal opinion which has, in the past, constituted almost the only standard of measurement of educational procedure. The efficiency or inefficiency of teachers, principals, and superintendent, and the effectiveness of courses of instruction, have for long been measured by such personal standards, in which the opinions of laymen often have been of quite as much value as the opinions of school men. The importance of the work done

¹ School administration, in respect to training and professional preparation, has been until recently about the most backward of all the learned professions, being in much the same position the army was before the establishment of West Point, the navy before Annapolis, medicine and surgery before the days of medical schools, all constructional and engineering undertakings before the establishment of engineering schools, and when an attorney-at-law was a man of some eloquence who had served a certain apprenticeship in a law office and in the justice's court. Our successful city superintendents of the past have been to a large degree the Israel Putnams and the Paul Joneses of the work. In the past, when each was blazing his own trail, this answered fairly well; to-day, with an accumulated common body of scientific knowledge relating to the work, it will not do at all.

in the schools and the value of their output also have been subject to evaluation by the same standards of personal opinion. The school, too, and not the world outside, has framed the specifications for the training of its graduates, and these again have been based wholly on personal opinions as to needs held by schoolmasters. When laymen on school boards have broken in, and have dismissed teachers and superintendents or altered courses of study, the intrusion naturally has been resented without any one being able really to prove that such an intrusion was unjustified or the results especially harmful.

In other words, the school, the most important undertaking of any community, morally, socially, or financially, has stood isolated in the community, unable to prove that what it was doing was the best possible, and unable to speak to the community of its accomplishments in a language which carried conviction and which the community could easily understand. Instead, we have asked the community to accept on faith our statements that what we were doing was of very great importance, and that we were doing it very well. The result has been an isolation of the school which has defeated some of its best efforts.

The actuating purpose of this new movement for the establishment of standards of measurement and units of accomplishment has been that of removing the school from its isolation in the community; of enabling it to prove the importance of what it is doing by making it possible for it to speak a language which the community can understand; and of making possible the measurement of its efficiency, or the efficiency of individuals in the school system, in terms of established units and standards. In other words, the purpose has been to change school supervision from the ranks of an occupation to that of a profession — from a job dependent upon political and personal favors to a scientific

service capable of defense in terms of accepted standards and as measured by units of accomplishment. The movement for the creation of scientific standards of measurement and units of accomplishment is a movement of vast importance to the future of the work of school administration and school supervision, and one which bids fair in time to change its entire character. In another decade or two we shall probably need to rewrite our books on school administration in terms of this new scientific development.

Measurement by comparison. Up to very recently the only measure of accomplishment we have had, in advance of measurement by personal opinion, has been that of measurement by comparison. To learn something about costs for education we have compared costs for different items in one school system with similar costs in cities of approximately the same size; courses of instruction have been evaluated in terms of work offered and time devoted to the different studies in other cities; enrollment, attendance, and promotional averages have been compared with enrollment, attendance, and promotional averages elsewhere; and the provision of special supervision or the demands made on teachers have been measured in terms of what other similar cities provide or require.

Such a plan has many merits, as it serves to place a city among other cities of its class, and the position of a city may then be graphically shown.¹ It represents a marked

¹ *The Report of the Commission appointed to study the System of Education in the Public Schools of Baltimore* (1911), which was the first of the larger school survey reports, is a good example of this type of study. The method of comparison was used largely in this report, Baltimore being compared, in a large number of items, with twelve other cities which in 1910 had a total population of 300,000 or more.

The excellent *Study of Expenses of City Schools Systems*, by Updegraff (Bulletin no. 5, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1912), is a study made by this same method of comparison, with an explanation of central tendencies in expenditures.

The very valuable studies by Holmes and Jessup, in the *Report of the*

advance over the method of judgment by personal opinion, and enables a superintendent or a school system to defend requests or practices in the light of conditions found or expenditures made in other cities of its class. Whether a city is above or below the average for other cities of its class in any item, or whether its schools or its practices are particularly different, is easily ascertained and easily shown.

Though not very exact, it nevertheless is a method which always will be useful, for certain rough comparisons, while in the derivation of more accurate standards it will be necessary to make much use of this comparative method. The difficulty with the method is that it compares good, bad, and indifferent, and tends to place the average or median standard so derived in that part of the scale which represents mediocrity, rather than placing it in that part which represents progress.

Units or standards for measurement. Within the past two decades numerous scientific workers have labored at the creation of standard scales for measurement, and the establishment of units of accomplishment, with a view to a better standardization of educational procedure and the creation of comparable units of accomplishment. As a result of their work, we now possess numerous scientifically derived scales of measurement ¹ which may be applied to a system of schools, to different systems, or to parts of a system, and by means of which we may measure the quality of

Committee on Economy of Time (H. B. Wilson, Chairman), are two other examples of the use of the comparative method.

Still another example of this method is the *Report on the Organization, Scope, and Finances of the City of Oakland, California*, by Cubberley, 48 pp. Board of Education Bulletin no. 8, 1915.

¹ Hines, in his *Guide to Educational Measurements*, written in 1922, stated that over three hundred educational tests had then been worked out and standardized. There are probably four hundred such measuring instruments to-day. We also have a number of battery tests, as The Illinois Examination, the Stanford Achievement Tests, etc.

the work being done.¹ This does not mean that all children are to be made alike, or that a uniform procedure is to be followed, but rather that all practices and methods can be tested, and those which do not give good results can be discarded. It means, too, the substitution of demonstrable proof as to the validity of a method or a procedure for the personal opinion of teachers or school authorities.

Need for standards as guides. An important underlying purpose in the creation of standard scales for measuring school work and for comparing the accomplishments of different groups of children has been to give both supervisors and teachers something definite at which to aim in the imparting of instruction. Teachers too often assign tasks and hear lessons without thought of other quantitative standards than the covering of the course of study and the passage of examination tests, and supervisors too often supervise without any very clear idea as to how best to direct effort to secure maximum educational results. The growth-process in a child, as in a seed, will of course do much to unfold what is latent there, but all quantitative standards so far evolved show wide variations in accomplishment in supposedly somewhat similar groups. Teaching without a measuring stick, and without definite standards of accomplishment for different groups, and trusting to luck and to the growth-process to secure results, is comparable to the old-time luck-and-chance farming, and there is no reason to suppose that the introduction of carefully formulated and well-tested standards of measurement and units for accomplishment into school work — building standards, janitor-service standards, health standards, mental-capacity standards, accom-

¹ See the chapter on the measurement of instruction, or the accomplishment of the pupils, in any modern school survey *Report*. An evaluation of the work of instruction by the use of standardized tests is a recognized part of the technique of any school survey to-day.

plishment standards in the different school subjects, instruction standards, teacher standards, supervision standards — would not do for education what has been done for agriculture as a result of the application of scientific knowledge and methods to farming.¹

The need for careful individual records is not likely to be overemphasized with a professional body which in the past has kept only mass records, often of a more or less meaningless type. More clerical service will be needed to make tabulations and record data, as any system of measurements and standards will be of but little value unless careful and somewhat detailed individual and group records are kept from year to year. What is needed is a series of clear, adequate, incontestable, and accessible records of the educational results from time to time achieved in the schools. The lesson of the business world, from which we have much to learn in the matter of efficiency, is that detailed records more than pay for their cost, and that an accurate knowledge as to manufacturing processes is impossible without such records.

Importance of such standards. For the teacher such standards and units mean definiteness. Pupils can be examined and classified in the group where they can work most advantageously. Each teacher can know definitely what is expected of her, for each type of pupil, and, with definite tasks laid down, she can know at all times whether or not she is accomplishing the things expected of her. The

¹ "For the sake of argument, suppose all of the usual protests against standard tests are conceded. Grant that the tests themselves are not scientifically developed; that they are inaccurate; that judgment in their application is faulty; that the results are not what is claimed; that certain elements in good teaching are immeasurable — granting all of these things and more, the fact still remains that the conclusions reached by such tests are far more accurate than those based upon vague impressions of what ought to be." (Don C. Bliss, in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. 1, p. 88.)

center of educational consciousness will be shifted for her from school machinery and courses of instruction to the child to be taught.

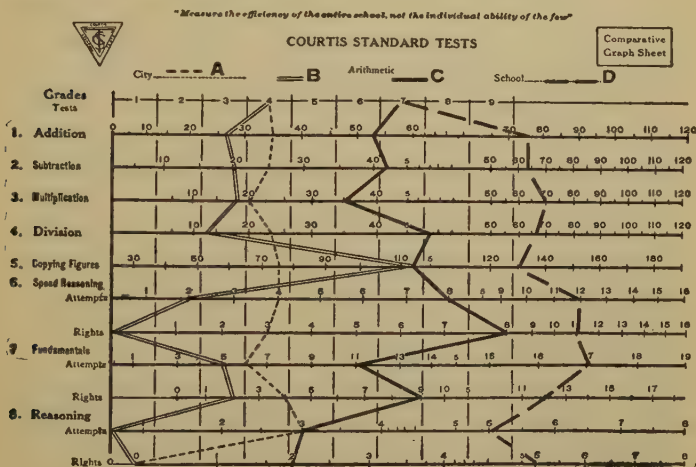


FIG. 49. A COURTIS SCORE CARD IN ARITHMETIC

In the figure above curves A and B are of two individuals in the same class. Note that A is practically normal except in the last test (shown by the fact that the curve is almost a straight line, and lies almost wholly within the boundaries of the fourth-grade work), while B is below grade in every test but one and is particularly weak in reasoning.

Curves C and D are two measurements of the same child, one in September and the other in June. Note the correction of many defects, and the balance of the final scores. (Reproduced by permission of Dr. S. A. Courtis.)

With the scales so far evolved teachers can be taught to test their own work and measure their own progress. Records will need to be kept and studied. Many of the results are capable of graphic representation,¹ and over these graphs pupil and teacher may confer. Often the pupil can chart his own record, or compare his own work, and see his own deficiencies.

From an examination of the pupil-results, building prin-

¹ See Harold Rugg's *Primer of Graphics and Statistics* (Boston, 1925), for descriptions of how to do such graphic work.

cipals and supervisors can tell, almost at a glance, whether pupils or rooms are making proper progress; when any group has made all desirable progress and should advance; whether instruction is directed to what are the weak points for the group; where teachers who need help are located, and in what particulars they need help; in what rooms the load and the teacher are not properly adjusted; and what teachers are so inefficient or indifferent or incapable of progress that they should be dropped from the service. For the purpose of vocational guidance of pupils such records have proven of great value. The superintendent, too, can use the results to talk to his school board and to his community and can justify both the work and the expense of his schools.

Special bureaus to handle the new work. As the new test and measurement and efficiency movement began to show its importance and to awaken discussion, a few school systems, here and there, began experimenting with the new idea to see what use could be made of it. In the beginning this experimentation took a number of directions, and soon led to the creation of a number of special bureaus to direct and guide the new work.

The first city to make a beginning along the line of the new work was Rochester, New York, which in 1911 employed a municipal expert to advise the board of education on matters of accounting and finance, and this led to the establishment, beginning with 1913, of a Bureau of School Efficiency to take over the work thus started. The first city to create a bureau of educational research, however, was Baltimore, which did so in 1912. New York City and New Orleans established similar bureaus in 1913, and Boston, Detroit, Kansas City, and Schenectady in 1914. These were the first city educational research bureaus to be established. In 1914 Louisville established a psychological

clinic, and within the three years following three cities ¹ had created bureaus to deal with problems relating to delinquency, attendance, and educational and psychological research. By 1913 the testing movement had proceeded far enough that cities now began to create bureaus, under various titles, to deal with testing procedures, guidance, and research activities, and between 1913 and 1920 some two dozen bureaus, with testing procedures and coöperative research as the main functions, were created by city school boards.

In the beginnings of the movement the purpose was largely financial, statistical, and the improvement of records and reports and accounting procedures. A few of the early bureaus from the first, however, dealt with problems of delinquency and psychological research. Soon misfit cases began to be studied to discover causes and to suggest means of control. Then testing procedures, pupil guidance, survey work, and educational research were added. Finally curriculum studies, coöperative studies within the school system, and definite educational research projects were entered upon. To-day a Bureau of Educational Research ² carries on a wide series of studies relating to pupil placement, retardation, testing programs, salary schedules, curriculum work, statistics, finance, accounting, attendance, and other types of research studies, while many have divisions that deal with misfit and subnormal children and do the work of a psychological clinic.³

¹ Youngstown (1917) and Warren (1918), Ohio, and Los Angeles (1917).

² This is the most common title employed. Other commonly used titles are Bureau of Research and Guidance, Bureau of Research and Service, and Bureau of Standards, Statistics, and Research.

³ One of our cities, with a very modest research organization and a small yearly expenditure, recently reported the scope of its work, during one year, to have covered: (1) to keep up a continuous survey of production through the use of standardized tests; (2) to train teachers in their use of

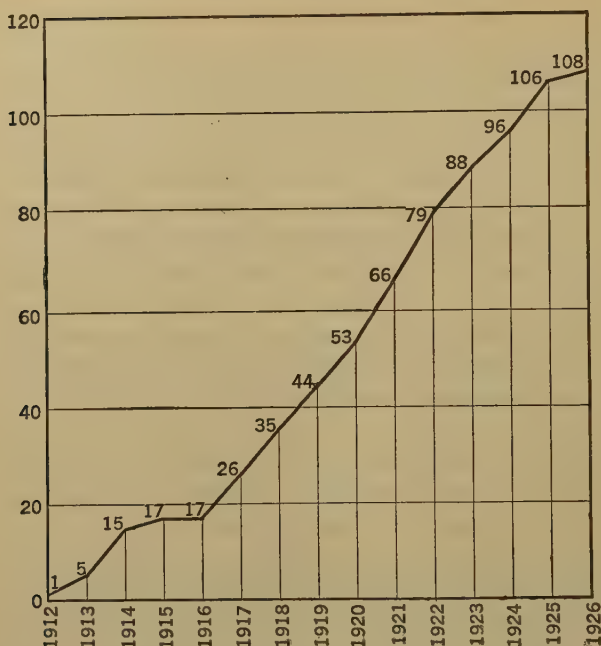


FIG. 50. DEVELOPMENT OF BUREAUS OF RESEARCH, 1912-26

(After data by Chapman.)

Once established, such a bureau becomes a general service-station for the school department, and to it are assigned many duties that the superintendent of schools has no time to look after but which need to be cared for. Being specialized for research work, a bureau of this type can carry on these functions without difficulty, if adequate clerical help is provided. Such general duties include devising record and report forms, training teachers for testing, publicity service, educational

tests; (3) to help improve instruction; (4) to experiment in classification; (5) to handle all mental testing; (6) to form special classes; (7) to make age-grade studies; and (8) to direct the course of study reorganization work.

information, compiling the budget, textbook analysis, checking building plans, administration of the school census, business studies, answering questionnaires, preparation of reports, test construction, lecture service, building up a professional library, and similar duties. Often a survey of a part of the school system, or of some function of the schools, is organized and directed by the research bureau.

General need for such service. Up to quite recently the organization of research bureaus has been confined rather largely to cities of 100,000 population and over. These bureaus have been in existence long enough now to have shown their usefulness, and the need to-day is for the creation of some form of efficiency and investigating service in all types of school systems. Even small city school systems could employ some teacher who has been trained for research work, and assign this person as an assistant to the superintendent for special investigations and direction of the work. County-unit school systems ought to create a division or bureau, or at least employ a trained person, to handle the work for the whole county. We need research work, of a very practical kind, to guide us in adapting our schools to the needs of the individual and society. The superintendent of schools, who is responsible for the formulation of policies, needs to be able to base his recommendations on data of an extent and accuracy beyond his ability to collect, with the many other things he has to do. The research department of a school system thus is almost invaluable to a school superintendent, being in a way his staff for the organization of facts and the preparation of the data that he must use.¹

¹ "The research department of the public schools must, to a large extent, be the eyes and ears of the superintendent. The superintendent cannot make his own researches. Only to a limited degree can he see the conditions in the schools at first hand, and even where he can view conditions personally he must have the aid of eyes and ears better than his own.

In addition to the lines of service previously enumerated, an efficiency department will find many other lines of work that may be followed profitably. Following the pattern of efficiency and research departments in industry, other lines that might be carried on profitably would include at least the following: To study all phases of the process of preparing pupils for life-careers, and for efficient community service; to study the needs of life and the industries, with a view to restating the specifications for the manufacture of the educational output; to study means for increasing the rate of production, and for eliminating the large present waste in manufacture; to test the product at different stages of manufacture, and to advise the workers as to the results of their labors; to test out different methods of procedure, and gradually to eliminate those which do not give good results; to study the costs of production, not so much to cut down costs as to be able to show how the efficiency of the plant may be increased by a proper adjustment or even an increase in expenditures; to supply the superintendent with concrete data with which he may deal more intelligently with his board, the public, and the teaching staff; and to organize material for publication in the annual printed report of the school department.

The clinical psychologist and his work. Any important work in increasing the effectiveness of schoolroom instruction must, almost of necessity, presuppose the adjustment of the load to the pupil, and of the type of work to the pupil's

There should come to his table regularly reports showing vividly and accurately conditions in every department of the school system. If this is to be done, three conditions must be met: (1) Communities must be willing to appropriate to the department that directs and largely carries on the research activities in the schools more money than has been spent up to the present time; (2) more men and women must be trained for research; and (3) better methods of presenting the results of investigations and research must be devised." (Superintendent Jesse H. Newlon, *Journal of Educational Research*, vol. 8, p. 110.)

possibilities and probable future needs. To-day we do this very roughly or not at all. The differentiated-course plan of instructing and promoting pupils, as shown in Figure 45, is a step in this direction, as are all of the differentiated types of schools and individual-instruction plans which have been organized by different cities. All of these efforts are valuable, but they go only about so far.

There is need, in all school systems of any size, in addition to the efficiency expert or experts so far described, of a clinical psychologist, whose prime function shall be to have charge of the psychological study of all peculiar children, and to oversee the instruction of all children of the retarded or subnormal types. In small cities this work will need to be done as a phase of the service of the efficiency department, and as a part of the work of adjusting teacher and pupil-load. Oftentimes the work comes closely in touch with the work done by the health department, and occasionally is classed as a phase of such service, though it more properly belongs with that department whose chief work lies along the line of experimental pedagogy. In all large cities, say of 200,000 or 250,000 and upward, the clinical psychologist has a position important enough to warrant the creation of a separate department, coördinate and coöperating with the health department and that part of the efficiency department which deals with the problems of experimental pedagogy.

A continuous survey of production. The work described in this chapter is new work, and work of a type with which schoolmasters have only recently begun to be familiar, but it is work of great potential importance, work which will professionalize teaching and supervision, and work destined to do much to increase the value of the public service rendered by our schools. By means of standards and units of the type which have now been evolved and tested out, it is pos-

sible for a superintendent of schools to make a survey of his school system which will be clearly indicative of its points of strength and weakness, and to learn from the results better methods and procedures. It is also possible now for any school system to maintain a continuous survey of production in all of the different phases of its work, and to detect weak points in its manufacturing processes almost as soon as they appear.

Every manufacturing establishment that turns out a standard product or series of products of any kind maintains a force of efficiency experts to study methods of procedure and to measure and test the output of its works. Such men ultimately bring the manufacturing establishment large returns by introducing improvements in processes and procedure, and in training the workmen to produce a larger and a better output. Our schools are, in a sense, factories in which the raw products (children) are to be shaped and fashioned into products to meet the various demands of life. The specifications for manufacturing come from the demands of twentieth-century civilization, and it is the business of the school to build its pupils according to the specifications laid down. This demands good tools, specialized machinery, continuous measurement of production to see if it is according to specifications, the elimination of waste in manufacture, and a large variety in the output.

If it be objected that education is not working with iron and brass and leather, but with human beings where heredity and the growth-process modify production,¹ then we can

¹ "Tests will not replace skill, they will not replace tact, they will not replace kindness, they will not replace enthusiasm, or nobility. On the other hand, they will not in any sense harm us, and they will be useful as helps, no matter how ideal our aims. Our ideals may be as lofty and subtle as you please, but if they are real ideals, they are ideals for achieving something; and if anything real is ever achieved it can be measured. Not perhaps now, and not perhaps in fifty years from now; but if a thing exists, it

turn to agriculture for a closer analogy. In this field we are now providing expert county agricultural advisers, at large expense, to assist farmers in improving their methods and increasing the value of their output. This is not being done because the farmers have asked for such assistance — for they long laughed at the idea and ignored the assistance offered — or because of any philanthropic idea on the part of the National Government, chambers of commerce, or produce exchanges, but solely because such advisers pay for themselves in the increased and better-standardized output, or the change in the character of the output which results from the better methods and procedure which the advisers persuade the farmers to adopt. There is no reason to assume that the results arising from expert advice and guidance would be particularly different in the field of popular education.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Would the development of standards for measurement of instruction enable school officers to give a more intelligent accounting to the public for the money spent on public education? How?
2. What do you understand by the statement that "the school, and not the world outside, has framed the specifications for the training of its graduates"?
3. Explain your conception of what is meant by: (a) the present isolation of the school in the community life; (b) enabling the school to speak a language which the community can understand.
4. Illustrate a good use of the method of comparison. Why does this method give results representing mediocrity rather than progress?

exists in some amount; and if it exists in some amount, it can be measured. I am suspicious of educational achievements which are so subtle and refined and spiritual that they cannot be measured. I fear that they do not exist." (E. L. Thorndike.)

5. The schools of Butte measured high in spelling, very irregular in penmanship, fairly satisfactory to high in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic, and low in reasoning tests and in composition. From this, what would you conclude as to drill work there?
6. Do supervisors have, in their supervision, an advantage over teachers in their teaching, with regard to aim? How and why?
7. Illustrate the use and possibilities of standards in the following matters:
 - (a) Building standards.
 - (b) Janitor-service standards.
 - (c) Health standards.
 - (d) Mental-capacity standards.
 - (e) Subject-matter standards.
 - (f) Instruction standards.
 - (g) Teacher standards.
 - (h) Supervision standards.
8. Illustrate how the introduction of such standards will benefit:
 - (a) The classroom teacher.
 - (b) The school principal.
 - (c) The superintendent of schools.
9. Will the general introduction of such standards of accomplishment mean uniformity for all, or just the opposite? Why? What will be their effect on uniformity in courses of study?
10. How could a series of student records be made of service to a vocational-guidance bureau?
11. Illustrate the service of such a department in helping to organize or to reconstruct:
 - (a) The work in manual training.
 - (b) The household-arts work.
 - (c) The high-school commercial department.
 - (d) A city industrial school.
12. Explain what you understand to be the field and chief services, in a city school system, of a clinical psychologist.
13. Is the movement for part-time industrial schools, in which two sets of students alternate with a week in the shops and a week in the schools, likely to contribute toward a better adaptation of instruction to community needs?
14. In the present struggle for funds in the annual city budget, do the water, sewer, health, fire, and street departments have

an advantage over the educational department by reason of the latter's lack of standards for work and units of accomplishment?

15. State the importance of the movement for standards for work and for units of accomplishment as a means of defense of the schools against unjust criticism and attacks.
16. What advantages would such standard records have over per cents in the transference of student records from school to school, or school to college?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Study the *Report of the Survey Commission Appointed to Study the System of Education in the Public Schools of Baltimore* (Bulletin no. 4, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1911), to see how the method of comparison was used in this report.
2. Take any recent school survey *Report*, and report on the use of tests and measures to evaluate the instruction.
3. Report on the plan of organization and work of the research bureau in any school system as to which you can obtain information.
4. Report, similarly, on the organization and work of any efficiency service in any manufacturing plant for which you can obtain information.
5. Go over Wallin's *Clinical and Abnormal Psychology*, and report on the work of a clinical psychologist in a public school system.

PROBLEMS

1. You have been elected superintendent of schools in a city of 15,000 inhabitants. Most of the principals and some of the teachers have had a course on tests and measurements, but little use has been made of measurement or efficiency methods in the schools. The school board has not thought of it, and would at present appropriate very little money for such a purpose. Outline a three-year program by which you hope to get something useful under way.
2. The results of a testing program, inaugurated when you become superintendent of schools, show that the pupils in the schools write well but lack speed, spell above average, know

fact geography but cannot interpret home geography, are average in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic but are low in mental arithmetic and reasoning problems, are low in thought composition, and can pronounce words in reading fairly well but are low in thought-getting silent work. Diagnose the situation, and prescribe remedial procedures.

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CHAPTER XXV

THE BUSINESS AND CLERICAL DEPARTMENT

Department organization. A business and clerical department, of some form and scope, is an absolutely necessary part of the organization of every city school system. In the small city school system the entire organization may consist of only an office bookkeeper and clerk, who keeps the books of the school district, under the direction of the superintendent, attends to the correspondence, issues orders for the necessary school supplies, and assists the superintendent in checking over and approving bills for presentation to the board of education. This represents the simplest form of organization, and is shown in Figure 19.

As the city grows a regular business and clerical office and office force will need to be organized, the force consisting of a clerk to the board or a business manager, or both, with stenographers and bookkeeper and clerks, and with oversight of all business and purely clerical matters of the city school district centered here. The work of the school janitors, the purchase and distribution of school supplies, the repair of schoolhouses, and the upkeep of buildings and grounds, naturally will fall under the control of this business and clerical officer, thus leaving the superintendent of schools free to attend to the supervision of instruction and the larger questions of policy and procedure. As the city grows still larger a superintendent of buildings and grounds will be added, often in its beginnings in the form of a head janitor and repair man, who will divide the above duties with the clerk or business official. This latter development is shown in Figure 20.

As the city grows larger, or as we pass to cities of a larger group, a still more highly organized and specialized form of business and clerical department will be needed, under the charge of a business manager, with a secretary, bookkeepers, purchasing agent, storekeepers, clerks, stenographers, etc. This form of organization is shown in Figure 21. The work here is much more specialized than in the case of the medium-sized city shown in Figure 20. We also note here the clear subdivision of the business and property control into two coördinate departments, one under a business manager and one under a superintendent of school properties, the two working in close coöperation with each other and with the superintendent of schools as the head of all departments. What we saw in its beginnings in Figure 19, we find in completed form.

The work of the school property department will be considered in Chapter XXVII; in this chapter we shall deal only with the work of the business and clerical official.

Position of this department. The question of unified or dual control, considered previously in Chapter XVI, has been more an object of controversy in connection with the business and clerical department than anywhere else in the entire school system. The main reason for this controversy here has been that the person selected to head such a department usually is a person of good business experience, the school board members understood his work better than they do the educational work of the schools, and both business managers and board members tend to regard school men as "impractical" and "unbusinesslike," and as not interested in "economy." It is urged, too, that the superintendent of schools should be freed from any call upon his time for business matters that he may be free to devote his time and energy to the education of children. The business manager usually tends to promote such ideas, as he feels his impor-

tance and rather resents working under direction. In consequence, there is a rather marked movement to-day, supported chiefly by school business officers, to secure dual control wherever possible.

The idea seems to be to build up a "Chinese Wall" between the business and the educational departments of the school system. The superintendent of schools is to devote his entire time to looking after the educational part of the school work, while the school board employs a competent and an experienced business man to look after all business and clerical matters. It is then the latter's business to keep all books and records, make all purchases, check up after all administrative officers, look after the janitors, repair the buildings, buy and distribute the textbooks and supplies, approve all bills and make out all vouchers, attend to the pay roll, and prepare the annual school budget, including the amounts to be expended by all other departments. Such a conception of school administrative organization we saw well worked out in Figure 23, inserted at page 276.

Fundamental principles. If we assume that school business management exists chiefly for the contribution it can make to the carrying on and the improvement of the conditions surrounding instruction, as we have a right to assume, then certain administrative principles become clear, namely:

1. Business administration is a definitely subordinate function, and must be conducted with reference to the educational objectives of the schools.
2. These objectives must be determined by the educational department, and be approved by the board of education.
3. In carrying out these objectives, and in estimating financial and equipment needs for carrying them out, the educational department must be in control.
4. Proper coördination of the instructional and business aspects of school administration must rest on a realization of the educational meaning of both budgets and expenditures.

5. There must be some one executive with determining authority, as continual appeals to the board to settle conflicts of authority is wasteful of time and not conducive to orderly administration.
6. The authority of this one executive must be final. As his responsibility must not exceed his authority, his authority must equal his responsibility.
7. Beneath this determining executive there should be a division of authority and responsibility in terms of functions performed.¹

If these principles are sound, as we hold them to be, then the proper title for a business and clerical manager in a large city would be Assistant Superintendent in charge of Business and Clerical Affairs, and, in a small city, Assistant or Clerk to the Superintendent. As Strayer has well said, "the fetish of the efficiency of the business man has often operated to interfere with sound principles of administration," and business officers have often, in the name of economy or efficiency, interfered seriously with the proper conduct of the schools. Yet studies made of cities having unified- and dual-control school systems, as was pointed out in Chapter XVI, have shown that the costs for education are as high in dual-control cities as in unified-control cities, with a slightly higher cost for management in the dual-control cities.

¹ "Not only in the administration of schools, but also in the administration of private enterprises, efficiency demands that there be a chief executive officer to whom all other executives are responsible. In our larger cities the superintendent of schools has been chosen for this office usually after a long period of successful experience as an executive in smaller cities or in subordinate executive positions in the larger city which he serves. Even though the superintendent of schools may not be entirely familiar with all of the details of accounting, purchasing, planning of buildings, letting of contracts, and the like, it seems only reasonable to suppose that he has sufficient executive ability to direct the activities of that part of the school organization having to do with these affairs. To set up a separate business organization with coördinate authority is to propose that the business affairs of the school system can be conducted without reference to the educational program." (Geo. D. Strayer, in *N.E.A. Journal*.)

Work of such a department. We next pass to an analysis of the work of a school business officer. As the nature of the work is much the same in a city of any size, we will consider the work as it is in one of our larger cities. The difference for a smaller city will consist largely in the smaller amounts purchased and the smaller sums expended.

To the business manager in our larger cities is now entrusted most of the work formerly attempted by the building, supply, repair, grounds, insurance, finance, and judiciary committees of the board of education. In addition, he attends to the clerical work of the school board and of the school department. Under substantial bonds and his work subject to an annual audit by certified accountants, the business manager now acts, under rather close direction of the board of education, as the financial agent of the school department. He keeps a complete set of books, covering all financial transactions of the school department, and an itemized and classified record of all income, expenditures, and appropriations. He approves all contracts, and all bills for materials or services, and draws all warrants on the treasurer of the board for salaries, services, materials, work completed, and other items. He is the custodian of all securities, insurance policies, contracts, or legal papers of the board, and also acts as the official secretary of the board and its committees, and keeps the official minutes¹ of all meetings and a record of all actions taken. Where no property department has been organized, he also handles the purchase and distribution of all school supplies, employs

¹ "It is exceedingly important that all of the official acts of the board of education be recorded in such form that ready reference may be made at any time to any single action of the board. Thus the minute book becomes one of the most important records maintained within the school system, since on its pages are recorded the policies and the programs to be pursued and the steps which have been sanctioned for the development of public education within the city." (*Tampa School Survey Report*, p. 17.)

and oversees the janitors, and the repair and engineering forces temporarily or permanently employed, oversees the construction and repair of school buildings, and looks after deeds, insurance, and any legal matters relating to the real estate or the personal property of the school department. In all matters involving legal procedure he may consult with the attorney retained by the school board as the legal adviser of itself and the officers of the school department. The employment and dismissal of janitors, mechanics, day laborers, clerks, and other similar employees in his department naturally rests with him.

Purpose of the department. The purpose of the department, as has been stated earlier in this chapter, is the organization of the business and clerical work connected with the schools along good business lines. The board of education here, as in the educational work, gives up the attempt to handle the details of all such matters itself, and appoints a clerk in the case of a small school system, and a business manager in the case of a large one, to look after the business and clerical affairs of the school department, and along lines that are businesslike and economical of both time and money. As in the educational work, also, the board of education retires, as it should, from the details of management, acts as a board of directors for a large business corporation would act, approves policies and projects, sets limits to expenditures, and holds the business manager accountable if anything goes wrong in his department.¹

¹ "The principles of good corporation organization need to be applied to educational affairs, and boards of school directors need to assume more the position of boards of directors for a large corporation, giving to their executive officers the authority which corporation directors give to their presidents and superintendents. The proper functions of the board of directors are to supply funds, to supervise expenditure, and to determine what additions to the plant or extensions of the business are to be undertaken. So long as the business prospers the board should leave the details of employment and management to the president and heads of departments; when

The position calls for a man of good business ability, but also for a man who has a sympathetic understanding of the needs and purposes of public education.¹ He is there and his department exists not only to relieve the board of education and the superintendent of schools of care and responsibility in matters of business detail, and to secure a better administration of the school business of the city, but also at the same time to serve the best interests of the schools.

Misdirection of the business department. It is in the failure to observe proper principles of relationship and purposes in the work that some of our business managers have made trouble. A few, here and there, have acted almost as though they thought that the balance of the school system existed to afford business for their office to handle, and they have made their office, instead of that of the superintendent of schools, the central feature in the school system. The superintendent, principals, and teachers have had to consider the business office first and the superintendent's office afterward, and this often in matters over which the business office ought to have little or no control.

The following illustrations of misdirected business-department zeal, taken from actual cases, will show what can happen when a business department mistakes the purpose for which it was created:

the business ceases to prosper they should either change their business methods, or change their executive heads." (*Portland School Survey Report*, chap. II.)

¹ The best business manager is often a school man who has marked business sense. By the very nature of the work to be done it is easier to develop business sense in a good school man than educational sense in a business man. It is important that the business manager, whether he be merely a clerk in the office of the superintendent in a small school system or the head of an important department in a large school system, be kept close to the educational management and be made to feel that he is a part of the educational organization. This is sometimes difficult to do with the man whose training has been wholly on the business side.

In city A, the business manager, given control over the school janitors to insure cleanliness and discipline, gradually extended his authority to that of a complete control of the use of the school-buildings outside of the regular school hours. As a result, if a principal desired to hold a parents' meeting at his school, if a manual-training teacher desired to give some extra instruction to pupils or teachers on Saturday morning, or if the superintendent of schools desired to hold a meeting of the teachers at the high-school assembly room, each had first to secure permission from the business manager before the janitors could permit them the use of the building.

In city B, the business manager, acting under his authority to buy school supplies, determined what and how much the schools needed. In this city, for example, the composition paper supplied one year was both very poor in quality and deficient in quantity, and all written work of the pupils was slow in speed and slovenly in looks. This was because the business manager, thinking that he knew more about the matter than the superintendent of schools, ignored the request of the latter for a specified good quality of paper, and supplied a paper three cents per pound cheaper and held down requisitions for supplies. He probably saved two hundred dollars to the school system, but at the expense of slovenly written work, reduced speed in writing, and the vexation of the teaching force.

In city C, the business manager bought everything by competitive bidding. If two hundred supplemental third readers, or knives or scissors of a certain kind for certain forms of manual-arts work were asked for, and he could get a different third reader or another kind of knife or scissors for a few cents less each, he purchased the cheaper quality and the schools were forced to accept what he supplied.

In city D, the business manager was noted for close economy in those things requisitioned for by the instruction department, and for great liberality — one might even say waste — in those matters for which his department controlled the expenditures. The school plant and grounds were kept in a high state of perfection, but teachers' salaries were moderate, and library and teaching equipment were low.

In city E, although it was generally known that all the dealers combined in the bidding for supplies and that all prices were high, the business manager refused to consider dealing elsewhere because of local political connections.

In city F, a high school waited a year for needed textbooks, which the superintendent and high-school principals asked for and which could have been provided from a contingent fund usable for such a purpose, because an item to cover the purchase had not been put in the annual budget.

In city G, each elementary school in the city was given a budget for summer repairs. One school asked for cement walks, and curtains, and a number of minor repairs, and when September came found that its entire allowance had been spent on new floors in classrooms, which were not needed.

In city H, the business manager bought chairs for the kindergartens, contrary to the specifications of the superintendent of schools and the director of kindergartens, which were uncomfortable, unhygienic, and structually unsatisfactory, but cheaper than the chairs specified. When these facts were pointed out to him he replied that if the children did not like the chairs he had provided they could sit on the floor — that he was there to save the taxpayers' money.

In city I, the business manager refused to approve so many requisitions for needed classroom teaching material, on the ground of economy, that the morale of teachers and principals was affected. When the superintendent protested to the school board the business manager defended his work as economical administration, and the board sustained him.

Purpose and position of such departments. All such arbitrary actions by the business manager are cases of mis-directed energy and zeal, and are the natural outgrowth of a dual or multiple form of school control. Any business department connected with any school system exists primarily to serve, and the prime purpose of the business manager, aside from economical purchasing, is to so serve the educational department that teacher and child are brought together under conditions more conducive to effective instruction. In the matter of purchases, all supplies which in any way relate to the work of instruction should, within the limits of the budget, be as requested by the educational department.

The school plant, too, does not belong to the business or the property department, but, after it is once constructed, to the educational department; and relations that the business department maintains to the school plant, such as cleaning, heating, and repairs, are only for the purpose of making the plant more useful to the educational department. In the matter of the use of the buildings the educational, and not the business department, should control.

Even in the matter of repairs and changes, the business department should follow the wishes of the educational department, rather than act independently, and with a view to making the largest use of the money available for such purposes. Still more, the amount of money spent on repairs and changes and upkeep should be as small as is possible, consistent with proper maintenance, in order that as large a percentage of the total school budget as is possible may be spent on the actual work of instruction, to facilitate which is the prime purpose for which all else exists.

If the superintendent of schools is worthy of his place, he will know as much or more about those needs of the schools which must pass through the business department as does the business manager, and the importance of making the superintendent the executive head of the entire school system, with coördinating power over all departments, subject always to appeal to the board in case of fundamental disagreement, will be apparent. The superintendent, more than any one else connected with the school system, is interested in and responsible for the welfare and the success of the schools in the community, and the executive head of every department in the school system should be under his ultimate authority and control.

In most matters, of course, a superintendent fit for his position will allow department heads large liberty of action, but in matters where the advice of the superintendent should

prevail he should be given authority to see that it does so. It will be conducive to the peace and harmony and progress of the schools if it is clearly stated in the rules and regulations of the board that this is so.¹ For this reason the business department has been placed where it is in each of the drawings (Figures 19, 20, and 21) showing proper relationships. Figure 23 shows a school organization where the business and clerical department has outrun all other departments in the school system, the board and its committees working largely through this department, and in many matters the business manager (here known as school clerk) has become the head of the school system.

Intelligent expenditures. It is not the work of a business department to effect economies at the expense of educational efficiency. The work of public education is not primarily a process of saving, but rather one of spending intelligently as much money as a community can afford to spend for schools.² To obtain the best results, each dollar should be spent as intelligently as is possible. Economies in one place are effected in order that the expenses in other places may be

¹ Boards of education usually have as much difficulty in this matter as do business managers — often more. This is perhaps only natural, as the business work represents the part of school administration which the board members are most capable of understanding. They usually can understand the business manager's point of view better than that of the superintendent. The business organization is definite, follows well-established forms, and deals with expenditures and economies, while the educational organization is less definite and the economies and expenses it desires are often quite different in character from those which appeal to the layman.

² An important place where plant expenses might be reduced and money saved for educational purposes lies in utilizing student interest and labor. Such a plan requires a close coöperation between the business and educational ends. The work at Gary, Indiana, is an excellent example of this, the pupils there having made much of the equipment in use. (See Burris's description, in Bulletin no. 18, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1914.) Another excellent example is the work of the pupils in the schools of Boise, Idaho, as described by Superintendent Meek, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1913, pp. 172-78.

larger. The only way to make better schools is to spend more money, in a more intelligent way. There is no other way.

The savings which will be effected by centralized business control will be chiefly by eliminating the waste occasioned by irresponsible committee management,¹ with its unintelligent control of school funds; by the purchase of materials and supplies at better figures; by economies in non-instructional expenditures that there may be more money to spend for instruction; by the close supervision of contracts, to see that what is called for is obtained; by the holding to responsibility of all who have dealings with the school department; and by having always at hand, for reference and for comparative study, a carefully itemized and classified statement of budget allowance and expenditures. This last phase of the work of a business department will be considered further in the chapter which follows, dealing with costs, accounting, and the budget.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Explain why dual control, for the educational and the business departments, seems so logical to the ordinary layman and business man when it is so unsatisfactory from an educational point of view.
2. Contrast school control and business or factory control with respect to the idea of unified management.
3. Show how the business manager has superseded committee control, and done away with the need for many committees and much committee action.
4. Why is a school man with business sense more likely to make a good business manager for a school system than a trained business man?
5. Take each of the examples of misdirected energy on the part

¹ In one California city the purchasing department did a business of \$464,895.53 in one year, recently, at a cost of but \$6080, and at a saving of from \$30,000 to \$40,000 over methods formerly in use.

of the business department (A to I), and show the proper action in each case.

6. Show how the superintendent of schools, under unified control, could have prevented each wrong action on the part of the business manager.
7. Show how the proper conduct of schools is the intelligent expenditure of as much money as is available.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Look up and report upon the powers and duties of the business manager, or official with equivalent title, in a few cities having such an officer.
2. Look up the methods used in handling the purchase and distribution of supplies in some city in your vicinity.
3. Look up and report on the principles of school supply management, as set forth by Anderson, Brown, Englehardt, Grill, Rice, Taylor, and Vincent.
4. Read the chapter on business management in three or four recent school survey *Reports*, and summarize what these show as to conditions and what they recommend.

PROBLEMS

1. Draw up a plan for organizing the business work in (a) a city of 20,000 inhabitants; (b) one of 75,000 inhabitants; and (c) in a city of 250,000 inhabitants or more.
2. Draw up a plan for purchasing the school supplies needed for a city of 30,000 inhabitants.
3. Draw up a plan for storeroom organization, management, and the distribution of the supplies for this same city.
4. Draw up a plan for the scientific selection of textbooks, for their distribution and control, and for the inventory, repair, and storage of them when not in use.

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CHAPTER XXVI

COSTS, FUNDS, BUDGET, AND ACCOUNTING

1. *School costs*

Constantly increasing costs. As was stated in the preceding chapter, the problem which the board of education and the superintendent of schools in control of any city school system has to face is to spend, in the most intelligent manner possible, as much money for education as the people of the city are willing to provide. It will have been evident, too, from what has been said earlier, that a thoroughly efficient school system must cost more money — oftentimes much more money — than does the ordinary city school system of to-day. Practically every addition made to a school system with a view to increasing its efficiency means the expenditure of additional funds for equipment and maintenance. In any growing American city the school system is calling continually for increased funds, and in even a relatively stationary city a school system that is trying to keep up with the progress of American education also is continually asking for increased appropriations for equipment, maintenance, and for new undertakings.

An expensive school system may not be an efficient school system, but a cheap school system cannot be an efficient school system, viewed from the larger community point of view. The only way to make better schools is to spend, in an intelligent manner, a constantly increasing amount of money on them. If a school system is to run on cheap lines it cannot be highly efficient. Either its teachers or officers will lack in grasp and render inefficient service, or, if these happen to be efficient in spite of the low compensation paid,

the system will be inefficient in that it will minister, to only a limited extent, to the larger community needs.

A cheap school system. If a cheap system of instruction is desired by the people of a city the school system should not be expanded, the courses of instruction should not be enriched, and no effort should be made to minister to new educational needs. An eight-year elementary-school course, based wholly on textbook instruction; large classes; no kindergartens, manual training, or domestic-science instruction; and an old-line book-type of high-school course (languages, history, English, mathematics, and textbook science) is by all means the cheapest type of a school system to provide. Teachers for such instruction cost less; classes can be larger; few if any special supervisors will be needed; there will be but small expense for teaching equipment, and no extra expense need be incurred in building school-buildings for rooms for any form of special instruction; large school-grounds will not be needed; and overhead expenses will be reduced to a minimum. A teacher, a classroom, some seats, a stove and some fuel, a few maps and books, and a small expense for paper, pencils, ink, and chalk, represent about the equipment needed for such instruction.

The poorer the public schools, too, the larger the number of parents who will patronize the private and the parochial schools, and for the children of such the city will not need to build schools, employ teachers, or incur any expense whatsoever. Of course, there should be no attempt to enforce attendance laws in a city maintaining such a school system. Retardation will not be objectionable, because the pupils stay down in the grades where the instruction costs less, and a smaller percentage ever enter the high school where the instruction costs more. An examination of census, attendance, and retardation data; salary lists and classified expenditures; and the published courses of study

for some of our American cities would seem to indicate that, consciously or unconsciously, a number of our cities are still maintaining such a cheap type of school system. An examination of such items for the present, compared with similar items for a decade ago, however, indicate marked progress in the matter of expenditures, and hence in educational consciousness, during the past ten years.

The problem of increased funds. The administration of public education cannot be made a money-saving process. If it were it would be best to turn education over entirely to private agencies, and thus save the entire expense. On the contrary, the proper administration of public education with us to-day calls for the intelligent expenditure of as large an amount of public money as a community can afford. As new needs arise this amount must be increased and the scope of the school system must be extended. The amount of money expended also must be increased to meet the rising costs for all kinds of service, supplies, and materials, and to satisfy the public demand for a better and a more sanitary type of school building and improved equipment for the schools.

The problem which faces those responsible for the management of every city school system to-day is how to secure, in competition with the increasing demands of all other city departments, the funds needed to meet the constantly expanding needs of the schools. Upon the finance committee of the board of education, in a general way, and upon the superintendent of schools in particular, rests the burden of proving to the community the needs of the school system in order that the necessary funds may be obtained. The superintendent of schools who fails to put his shoulders to the collar and pull hard at this point in his work is one who may set the development of his school system back in a way that it will require his successor years of hard work to bring-

up. Every city department is pushing for additional appropriations, and unless the school appropriations are separated by law from city council control, the superintendent must push also to retain his proper share. To secure larger funds he must expect to prove amply his larger needs.

Sources of funds. In the matter of school funds every city works more or less closely under the state school law, and some portion of the funds needed for annual maintenance come from state sources. Taken for the United States as a whole, approximately 16 per cent of all school money is provided by the State, approximately 13 per cent comes from county taxation, and the remainder is raised by taxation within the city school district. There is much variation in these percentages as between the different States, a few States contributing heavily (6 above 50 per cent), and a number of States contributing very little (14 less than 10 per cent). On the other hand, over 80 per cent of all school funds is raised locally in 18 of the 48 States. In general, the high percentages of state support are in States where the per-capita cost for education is low, and *vice versa*, though there are exceptions to this statement. Taken another way, the percentage of local taxation that goes for schools is around one third,¹ the other two thirds going for other city purposes.

While the cost for government in the States has increased very materially since the outbreak of the World War, the increase in expenditures has not been due to any excess proportion of tax money going to education. In many States education, despite material increases in total costs, has not

¹ Statistics as to costs for 95 cities, for 1924, showed (U.S. Bureau of Education, *Statistical Circular*, no. 6, January, 1927) the following percentages of the total city income expended for education:

SIZE OF CITIES	AVERAGE per cent	HIGH per cent	Low per cent
30,000 to 100,000	37.7	69.4	12.8
Over 100,000	29.1	55.9	15.8

held its own in percentage of cost increase, when costs for other forms of government are considered. In other words, every other item of governmental expense — health, highways, charities, penal institutions, courts, police, and general government — has also increased, and often at a more rapid rate than has the expense for education. Figure 51, given below, shows a rather common proportional distribution of the expenses of a State, and of a medium-sized city.

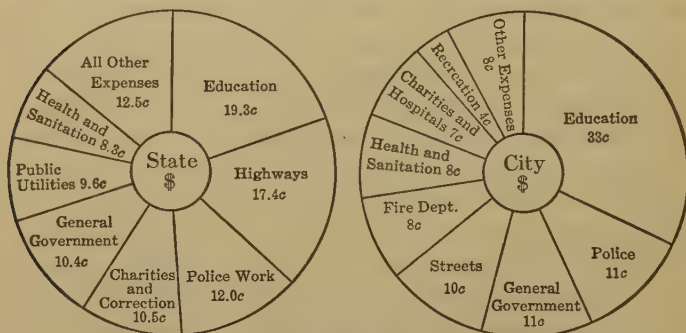


FIG. 51. WHERE THE TAX DOLLAR GOES

In a typical large State.

Average of cities of over 30,000.

The chief problem in school financing is the local tax rate for schools, as the state and county contributions tend to be fixed items, with the possibilities for expansion lying, almost wholly, in an increase in the local contribution. Only once in a period of years can the state or county rate be increased.

2. Securing funds

Funds independent of the council. To protect the schools from being given less than their proper share of funds a number of our States have given to a few or to all of the city school systems in the State the right to determine, usually within certain legal limits, the amount of school funds

needed, and to certify the same for levy, and without interference by any city authority.¹ There has been a marked increase in such authorization within the past fifteen years, as well as several recent attempts on the part of city officials and municipal government experts to break down such separate authorization. The rather common tendency of city governing authorities is to try to reduce the school department to a branch of the city government, and then to subordinate the interests of the schools to the interests of the patronage departments — fire, police, streets, parks, water, sewers — of the city. The more political the city government the greater is the danger to the schools. In cities operating under a commission form of government the results are likely to be much better than when a city council has to be dealt with.

The chief argument advanced for city control of the school tax is that it “unifies the tax rate,” and gives one central representative body control over all expenditures within the city. If the schools are to be free, it is asked, why not the parks, and the health, and the police? The answer must be that the schools are too important for the future of our national life to trust them to the whims and trades and log-rolling of a political body, elected with no reference to school

¹ St. Louis and Kansas City form good examples of cities in which the school boards have been given, by special charter provisions, full power to levy the school tax, up to a fixed limit in mills on the one hundred dollars of valuation. Ohio, Kansas, and California are good examples of States which have given the city school authorities such independence by general statute. Bard, Moore, and Greenwood (see references) present strong arguments for this method of handling the school-tax levy. Boston, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Toledo, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Milwaukee, Duluth, Denver, Omaha, Portland, and Seattle are examples of other cities in which the school-tax levy is in the hands of the school board. Most of the Western States have enacted general laws giving the rate-determining power to school boards, as have also a number of Southern States. The cities which are dependent on the city tax-levying authorities for their funds are located chiefly in the North Eastern quarter of the United States.

administration,¹ and that in but few of our cities has the sense of civic duty been such as to enable the people to place the schools on an equal footing with other city interests when party politics and personal influence are brought to bear.² To keep the total tax rate down to some pre-election pledge, made with the intent to gain votes rather than to promote sound city and school administration, always becomes of greater importance than to protect the interests of the schools. Even when thoroughly honest and actuated by good motives, the members of a city council lack that close touch with and understanding of educational problems which will enable them to appreciate the large future importance of substantial expenditures for schools, and when the needs of the schools come in competition with the pressing and more immediate needs of other city departments it is the needs of the schools which give way. Yet no other city department, except possibly the health department,³ repre-

¹ "It is commonly recognized that education cannot be reduced to the same system of administrative control as can be followed in dealing with health, police, and fire departments of a city, because the school is an institution coördinate in dignity and importance with the government, the church, and the family, and must not be subordinated to any one of them. For its work it requires freedom; and through its necessities it has obtained freedom of thought, freedom of speech, and is now in process of attaining a third form of freedom equally necessary to its undertaking, namely, the freedom of teaching. This means that it itself shall control its own courses of study, its own methods and conditions of instruction, sufficient money for its business, and its own expenditure of funds set apart for purposes of education." (E. C. Moore, in *How New York City Administers its Schools*, p. 78.)

² See especially H. E. Bard: *The City School District*, pp. 74-76.

³ Within recent years a tendency to segregate the health department also has been evident, as cities have been found incompetent and unwilling to deal properly with the health problem. A conspicuous example of this is the erection of a State Health Council in New York State, with power to supersede any local health ordinance by a general state regulation. As was pointed out in Chapter II, there is an evident tendency to give independent powers to health departments, somewhat analogous to those now given education, to insure their being able to do the work they were created to do.

sents any large future interest. Even it is not coördinate with the government, the home, and the church as is the school. The unity of the city tax-levy is an argument of no importance.

The long experience of our American cities indicates clearly the desirability of removing the tax-determining power for the schools from the control of the city council, and of placing it, within certain legal limits to be fixed by the legislature, with the school authorities for determination. If within the legal limits, the rate decided upon should not be subject to review by any city authority.¹ The results have been uniformly good — except possibly to the city council — in those cities where such power has been transferred to the school authorities, and the schools of such cities have, in general, been able to keep out of politics and to make better progress than in those cities where the school department still remains a branch of the city government. In addition, the carrying out of a systematic educational policy over a series of years has been made more nearly possible. The tax rates for schools frequently are higher than under city council control, but they are not higher than the needs of the schools would indicate as desirable or the wealth of the people would indicate as reasonable. Of all money expended by any department of a municipality, that expended for schools probably is the most honestly and the most intelligently expended.

The competition for city funds. In those cities and States

¹ There might also be certain additional permitted increases in rates, above the legal maximum, to be determined by a vote of the people of the school district, on formal request of the school board, and over these increases also no city authority should have any control. For example, a permitted tax up to seventy-five cents on the hundred dollars, with the possibility of increasing this rate in any amount up to one dollar, by vote of the people of the school district on the proposal, would be a perfectly proper school tax law.

where no such separation of the tax-determining power for schools has as yet been provided for by law, and where the schools are locally regarded as a part of the municipal government, the school department must continue to compete with the other departments of the city government for funds. This demands that the school department be not only able to prove its needs, but, also able to force the city governing authorities to recognize them.

Once the city authorities tended to divide the city taxes between the school system and the other city needs, the other city-department needs — streets, sewers, health, fire, police, parks, library, and general expense — then being relatively small. Within recent years these other city needs have increased greatly in size and importance, due in part to the increasing costs for all kinds of service and material, and in part to the more insistent public demands for better police, library, parks, streets, sewers, health, fire protection, etc. Each of these other departments is able to offer easily understood statements as to needs, unit-costs, savings effected, benefits extended, etc., to back up their requests for additional funds.

The school department also asks yearly for more money, largely on the basis of good intentions and purposes, but often without being able clearly to prove its needs. When an attempt is made to do so it not infrequently is made in general terms which the ordinary citizen can scarcely comprehend. In part, this condition is inevitable, by reason of the very nature of the school. In part it is due to the fact that some school departments still present no budget worthy of a name,¹ and no statement that shows that they

¹ This situation is well illustrated by one large American city, as described in a survey *Report*, which says:

"One very obvious reason why the schools have failed to receive needed appropriations is that the school authorities have not known how to ask for money. They have not seen the relation between school needs which will

know anything as to the unit costs of their own work, or the need for or the effectiveness of expenditures made within the school department. It is really not surprising that city councils often emphasize other city departments in making budget appropriations, and give the schools a decreasing percentage of the annual city taxes.¹

A better school budget. To change this condition our school departments must provide a good system of book-keeping and a more accurate means of accounting, with a

come next year, and lump sum requests made this year for money, unsupported by statements of fact or proof of need. Lump sums with no details whatsoever are set down opposite all other items than teachers' salaries. . . .

"No comparisons are made in the estimate of the board or the superintendent of last year's appropriation, or last year's expenditure, with the estimate of expenditures for next year. Nothing in the salary roll indicates how many new teachers are needed because of new enrollment, or new service to be rendered: \$96,960 is asked for janitors in elementary schools, and that is all. Nobody can tell how many janitors this will provide, what salaries will be paid, or how many janitors were employed last year. Similarly no details whatsoever are given for supplies, nothing in regard to the amount on hand, or the expected consumption next year. Huge lump sums are asked for for the extensions of kindergartens, additions to school buildings, yard improvements, etc., with absolutely no statement as to how the money asked for will be spent, what the needs are, or how much service will be bought with the money.

"The figures may be entirely reasonable and adequate, but the chances are that with so little information, and with the ever-pressing necessity of cutting down all estimates, the appropriating body will suppose that the school estimate is 'swollen' and will 'chop' accordingly."

¹ "Each claimant before city boards of estimate has a specific reform to promote, and presents definite figures to support his position. It is not the schools *vs.* graft, but the schools *vs.* street-cleaning, pure water, tenement-house inspection, the prevention of disease, or the reduction of infant mortality. The advocate of pure water or clean streets shows how much the death-rate will be altered by each proposed addition to his share of the budget. Only the teacher is without such figures. What can be expected of this but a curtailment of the school budget? Why, I ask, should New York City put its money into schools rather than into subways? Why should it not enlarge playgrounds and parks instead of increasing school facilities? Why should it support inefficient school teachers instead of efficient milk inspectors?" (S. N. Patten, in *Educational Review*, May, 1911, p. 468.)

view to being able to make their requests for funds more in terms of past usefulness, future needs, unit costs, and units of accomplishment. Unless our school authorities introduce more accurate methods in budget-making they can scarcely hope, in these days of high prices, increasing pressure for city funds, and demands for a lower tax rate, to be able to obtain the appropriations necessary to allow them to meet the constantly expanding needs of a modern city school system. Unless this situation is faced in a business-like manner our superintendents and school boards are likely to find the burden of proof as to the proper use of funds and additional needs, even in cities where the school board controls the funds, harder and harder to meet each year.

All estimates as to needs should be classified by departments, and further subdivided under the main headings used in accounting. The estimates under each heading should be made on the basis of the actual expenses of the preceding year, for each item; the quantity of each kind of service or supply needed the coming year; and the cost per unit of service or supply. The budget also should state how much is necessary to meet continuing needs, how much is required for automatic increases, and how much additional to meet enlargements in the service of the schools. Any additional information which will enable an appropriating body to reach an intelligent conclusion with respect to the adequacy or excessiveness of the amounts requested, such as comparative costs for a number of years, comparative costs in other comparable cities, reasons for increased unit costs, etc., should be presented in support of requests for increased funds.

3. The educational budget

Preparation of the budget. A well prepared budget of income and expenditures is an essential part of the financing

of any public enterprise. For public education, the budget presents an educational program, and how to finance it, for the consideration of those responsible to the people for the conduct of the system. The budget should present first the educational program that it is proposed to maintain for the coming year, then the spending program needed to maintain the proposed educational program, and finally a financing program to show how the needed funds are to be provided. How detailed such a budget will be will depend somewhat upon to whom it is addressed, being less detailed if it is to go to a mayor or city council, and more detailed if addressed to a board of education, which is to deal with it as much from the educational as from the financial point of view. The spending program naturally will follow the outlines for accounting procedure given on a subsequent page, the total proposed expenditure being distributed over the different items employed in accounting.

As we have stated previously, every expenditure in a school system is to a large degree an educational expenditure. This being so, the superintendent of schools should be as responsible for the presentation of a proper budget as he is for the conduct of the schools. He may not make the budget — even in a small school system the school clerk will do most of the work, and in a large school system the business manager will compile the spending and financing program — but the superintendent must be consulted continually during its preparation, must weigh and pass on many proposed items, and finally must approve the completed result and present it and explain it to the board of education.

The preparation of a school budget requires time; in a way it is almost a continuous process. A budget-calendar needs to be devised, information collected, estimates prepared, income estimated, requests weighed and evaluated, the budget drafted and reviewed and revised, and finally ap-

proved and prepared for presentation to the board of education for consideration, amendment, and adoption. The superintendent of schools, and not the business manager, should present and explain and defend the budget, and for the simple reason that it is he that is asking for funds to carry out an educational program through a series of educational expenditures,¹ and these educational expenditures need to be properly related and balanced.² The final approval of the budget and determination of the amount to be levied should be by the board of education concerned, to be in turn transmitted by them to the proper tax-levying authorities for levy and collection.³

The final phase is the administration of the approved budget, which is done largely by the business manager, under the direction and approval of the superintendent of schools. The person responsible for the making of the budget should also be responsible for its proper administration. Expenditures should be checked with budget appropriations, and on

¹ Upon the superintendent's mastery of the financial details of school administration depends much of his success in dealing with the people, and with the tax-levying body of the city, in all those matters relating to the financial aspect of the educational problem. The better business man the superintendent is the easier will he be able to handle this phase of the administrative problem.

² Strayer, in his study of the distribution of school costs in all cities of 8000 inhabitants and over, obtained the following results:

ITEMS	MEDIAN (per cent)	Q ₁ (per cent)	Q ₃ (per cent)
General control	4.4	3.3	5.7
Instructional service	74.3	70.0	77.0
Operation of school plant	12.8	11.0	15.0
Maintenance of school plant	4.1	2.7	6.0
Fixed charges	1.1	0.5	2.0
Auxiliary agencies	1.7	0.8	3.0

³ Twente, in his study of *Budgetary Procedure for a Local School System* (pp. 44-46), found that at that time (1923), in 49 per cent of the 357 cities of over 8000 inhabitants studied, the board of education possessed this final determining authority.

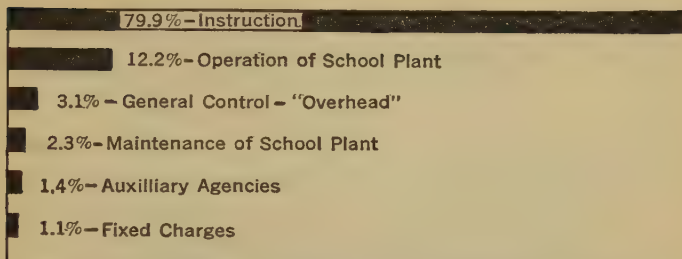


FIG. 52. DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL EXPENDITURES FOR CLEVELAND

Proportional expenditure of approximately \$23,000,000, spent in one year recently for public education.

an accrual basis. Deficiencies in budget items will at times occur, due to unexpected expenditures, and transfers of funds will need to be authorized, but a general deficit or a large surplus are alike undesirable. The budget should be so well prepared that the end of the year finds the schools with only the needed working balance to carry over.

4. *Accounting procedures*

Better accounting methods. Better budget methods invariably demand better accounting methods, and better accounting methods naturally lead to the preparation of a better annual budget. Up to nearly a decade and a half ago there were about as many different methods of school accounting as there were city school systems, but within the past decade city school systems have quite generally adopted the form for reporting financial statistics prepared by the coöperation of the United States Bureau of Education, the United States Census Office, the Association of School Accounting Officers, and the Committee of the National Council of Education on Uniform Records and Reports. With uniform financial reports a comparison of income and expenditures, for different items and for different parts of a school system, became possible for the first time.

The uniform financial records now in use¹ involve the keeping of all school-system costs under the following headings:

A. INCOME

I. Revenue receipts

1. From United States for vocational education.
2. From the State.
3. From the county.
4. From local sources:
 - (a) Tuition.
 - (b) General property tax, poll taxes, and appropriations.
 - (c) Taxation for debt service.
 - (d) All other local sources (fines, bequests, rent, interest, etc.).

II. Non-revenue receipts

1. From loans, and from bond sales.
2. Sale of property, and insurance adjustments.
3. Other non-revenue receipts.

III. Balance from previous school year

Total funds available for use.

B. EXPENDITURES

I. Expenses of general control. Overhead expense. (Classified for salaries and for other objects.)

1. Board of education and secretary's office.
2. School elections and school census.
3. Operation and maintenance of general offices.
4. Office of superintendent of schools.
5. Enforcement of compulsory-education laws.
6. Other expenses of general control.
7. Total expenses of general control.

II. Expenses of instruction. (Classified under day elementary schools, junior high schools, secondary schools, junior colleges, normal schools, full-time vocational schools, and part-time and continuation schools.)

¹ Copies of the form used in reporting may be obtained from the U.S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C. Also consult the N.E.A. Research Bulletin on *School Records and Reports* (vol. 5, no. 5).

1. Salaries of supervisors of grades and subjects.
 2. Other expenses of supervisors.
 3. Salaries of principals and their clerks.
 4. Other expenses of principals.
 5. Salaries of teachers.
 6. Free textbooks.
 7. Stationery and supplies and books used in instruction.
 8. Instruction in night schools.
 9. Instruction in summer schools.
 10. Other expenses of instruction.
 11. Total expenses of instruction.
- III. Expenses of operation of the school plant.* (Classified as under II.)
1. Wages of janitors and other employees.
 2. Fuel.
 3. Water.
 4. Light and power.
 5. Janitors' supplies.
 6. Other expenses of operation of plant.
 7. Total expenses of operation of plant.
- IV. Expenses of maintenance of school plant.* (Classified as under II.)
1. Repair of buildings and upkeep of grounds.
 2. Repair and replacement of equipment.
 3. Other expenses of maintenance of school plant.
 4. Total expenses of maintenance of school plant.
- V. Expenses of auxiliary agencies.* (Classified as under II.)
1. Public libraries under board of education.
 - (a) Salaries.
 - (b) Books.
 - (c) Other expenses.
 2. Promotion of health.
 - (a) Salaries.
 - (b) Other expenses.
 3. Transportation of pupils.
 - (a) Salaries.
 - (b) Other expenses.
 4. Enforcement of compulsory attendance.
 - (a) Salaries.
 - (b) Other expenses.
 5. Total expenses of auxiliary agencies.

VI. Miscellaneous expenses. (Classified as under II.)

1. Payments to private schools.
2. Payments to schools of other civil divisions.
3. Care of children in institutions.
4. Pensions.
5. Rent.
6. Insurance.
7. Other miscellaneous expenses.
8. Total miscellaneous expenses.

VII. Outlays. (Classified as under II.)

1. Land.
2. New buildings.
3. Alteration of old buildings.
4. Equipment of new buildings and grounds.
5. Equipment of old buildings, exclusive of replacements.
6. Total for outlays.

C. DEBT SERVICE

I. Forms of debt service.

1. Redemption of bonds.
2. Redemption of short-term loans.
3. Payment of warrants and orders of preceding year.
4. Payments to sinking funds.
5. Payments of interest.
6. Miscellaneous payments, including trust funds, textbooks to be sold to pupils, refunds, etc.
7. Total other payments.

The forms for bookkeeping, and means for keeping accounts according to the above plan, are considered further in Chapter XXX, under records and reports.

School accounts and unit costs. With the above classification of expenditures for a city school system it is possible to tell the total and the per-capita costs for any item of school expenditure, and in any type of school — such as elementary, junior high, senior high, industrial, special — in the system, and separately for day and evening schools. By a further classification of expenditures so as to show costs for all items for each individual school in the school system,

it is possible to compare cost items within the system, and to detect wastes and to perfect economies.¹ With such a system of bookkeeping it is possible, at any time, to determine the per-pupil cost of any form of instruction, the per-room cost for any form of service or supply, and the per-building cost for any item of maintenance or upkeep, and to check wastes wherever found. It is also possible to determine the most effective and the most economical units of organization and administration for the schools. Such a system of bookkeeping every city should install, and from such financial records a clear accounting should be made to the community each year in the annual school report.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. City A has increased in population only two per cent in a decade, and its school expenses but five per cent. Would this seem to indicate an efficiently conducted school system?
2. In two cities of practically the same size, C and M, the school expenses in C represent thirty-one cents out of each dollar of city expenses, and in M but nineteen and a half cents. What would this seem to indicate as to the efficiency of the two systems?
3. If the scope of the school systems in the two cities given above is practically the same, how would you account for the difference in percentage of expenditures?
4. In what way does the school-building problem complicate the question of school support more now than it used to do?
5. If a cheap school system, such as is described on pages 535-36 is to be maintained by a city, what type of salary schedule (See Chapter XX) would be best to adopt?

¹ For example, such figures might show that the cost for fuel in two similar buildings was 20 per cent more in one than in the other; that the cost for pupil supplies in elementary-school buildings ran from 95 cents to \$1.25 except in two, where the figures were 55 cents and \$1.89 respectively; and that the yearly per-capita cost of instruction was \$9.50 more in a four-room building than in a ten-room building. The unit costs for different types of instruction could be worked out from such data.

6. With all city departments increasing their demands, how can our cities meet the problem? Can or should the school take a subordinate place in the matter of needed appropriations? Why?
7. Is it a good thing for a school system to have to prove its needs: (a) to the community? (b) to a city council?
8. What are the advantages and disadvantages of (a) unified control of all funds? (b) separate control by the school board of the school funds?
9. What advantages do other city departments have over the school department in the matter of proving their needs?
10. Why is the problem of funds getting more difficult, in most of our cities, for the school department?
11. What can a superintendent do, in his work with the community, which will prepare the way for an acceptance of the school budget by the city council?
12. Show how a series of unit-cost items would be of assistance in budget determining, and in proving before city boards.
13. Under what heading would you charge the following items:
 - (a) A barrel of ink.
 - (b) A barrel of paint.
 - (c) Printing of notices to parents stating attendance regulations.
 - (d) A dozen brooms.
 - (e) A new accounting ledger.
 - (f) Envelopes and letter heads for use of school principals.
 - (g) Repairs to a piano in the high school.
 - (h) Two dozen baseballs.
 - (i) Salary of a school nurse.
 - (j) Box of chemicals for high school.
14. Suppose a dependent school system asks for what it really needs to maintain its schools, the local quota being 60 per cent of the total cost. The city council finally allows only half of what was asked for. What would be the best thing to do under the circumstances?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Look up and report on the methods used and the limitations imposed in levying the school tax in the cities mentioned in footnote 1, page 539.

2. Do the same for such States as give control of school tax levies to all cities by general law.
3. From what sources do the city schools of your State receive their revenue, what percentage comes from each source, and has the increase in revenues and the growth of the schools kept pace over a decade or a decade and a half?
4. After reading the different articles on who should prepare the school budget, give your conclusions, with reasons.
5. Examine the N.E.A. *Research Bulletin on School Records and Reports*, and report on what it contains.
6. Make a report on the fundamental principles involved in the formulation, adoption, and administration of a school budget, after reading such references as Ballou, Castle, Keough, Mason, Moehlman, Pittenger, Schloz, and Spaulding.

PROBLEMS

1. Assume that the city school system described under the heading "A cheap school system" (page 535) is located in a city of 20,000 population, that the school's share of the city taxes is eighteen cents on each dollar, and that local taxation supplies 40 per cent of the cost for maintenance of the schools. Assume now that a new management takes control, and in five years develops a good and an efficient school system. Assume that the state and county contribution has increased 10 per cent in the five-year period, while the total costs for the schools have increased 50 per cent, not including any capital outlay, and that city tax valuations have increased but 5 per cent. What now will be the city rate of tax for schools?
2. Outline a plan by which the above increase in the school's share of the city taxes might be obtained, against the competition of the other city departments.
3. Outline a good form of budget for a school system in a city of 25,000 inhabitants, spending \$1,000,000 for the annual maintenance of schools, and with a distribution of costs as shown in Figure 52, but with the items further subdivided and classified, according to the U.S. Bureau of Education standard forms. Preface the budget by a statement of the educational program which the budget is to carry out.

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CHAPTER XXVII

THE SCHOOL-PROPERTIES DEPARTMENT

The superintendent of school properties. This department, naturally, is found only in the larger cities, as only in cities of some size will there be sufficient work on the properties of the school department to warrant the employment of a special staff and the creation of a special department to care for it. In medium-sized cities the business manager, a head-janitor or some similar official, or an architect on temporary employment, working in conjunction with the superintendent of schools, must look after such work. In the smaller cities the superintendent of schools, together with his business clerk and one or more school-board committees, usually handle all work done in connection with the repair and upkeep of the school plant, an architect being employed only when new buildings are to be erected. Building and repair work is interesting, and sometimes a school superintendent becomes so fascinated with it that he virtually becomes a building superintendent and almost forgets that there is more important educational work to be done.

The employment of a superintendent of school properties, or a superintendent of school buildings, as he frequently is designated, represents an important and a relatively recent development in city educational service. The plan usually has been to select some young man who has had good engineering training, and who has good judgment, some imagination, and good executive capacity, and then to put him in charge of the construction, alteration, and upkeep of the school plant. Under his direction will be the architectural, engineering, and mechanical forces employed, and he

also will supervise the carrying out of all contracts for yard work, the construction and repair of buildings, etc. The heating, cleaning, and fumigation of the buildings also will be placed under his direction, and hence to him should be given power to employ, train, supervise, and dismiss all school janitors, engineers, mechanics, day-laborers, etc., employed on work which is under his control.

Purpose and place of this department. The purpose of this department is to centralize, under one responsible and scientifically trained head, all work connected with the creation and maintenance of the school plant. Naturally, such a department head must work in close coöperation with the superintendent of schools, the health director, the superintendent of playgrounds, and the business manager, and in accordance with plans and estimates approved by the board of education. Instead of members of the board of education attempting to prepare plans for school buildings, or to determine upon and supervise repairs and reconstructions, and instead of the superintendent of schools being compelled to devote much of his time to building construction and repair, and often to quarrel almost continuously with contractors to secure honest work, the board of education now turns all such expert work over to an expert to handle, reserving to itself only the appointment of the expert, the appropriation of the necessary funds for each constructional undertaking recommended by him and by the superintendent of schools, the formal approval of the plans, and the formal awarding of the contracts. The board also retires from the employment of school janitors, mechanics, and workmen, making possible the transformation of janitor work from a political job to a trained and efficient educational service.

The superintendent of schools, as the coördinating head of all departments, naturally should approve all large pro-

posals and plans of the head of the property department, the recourse in the case of a fundamental disagreement being the submission of the matter to the board of education for adjudication. As in the case of the business manager, a superintendent of schools will leave the superintendent of properties large liberty in all matters of detail; the important point to be looked after being that constructional undertakings shall be along sound educational lines.

In all smaller cities no such specialization of executive work can be provided for, and in such places the superintendent of schools, usually in conjunction with local architects and builders and committees of the board of education, must help plan and oversee the work that is to be done.

Responsibility of the superintendent of schools. Whoever does this work, though, the superintendent of schools must, at least in a general way, oversee what is being done. In a way also he must direct the efforts of those who are doing it. The thousands of constructional blunders which are in use as school buildings in our cities and towns to-day show the need of more attention to the scientific details of schoolhouse planning than has been given to the work by our superintendents in the past. To prevent a repetition of such constructional blunders, as well as unwise expenditures generally, is the duty of the superintendent of schools. Just as every business department expenditure is an educational expenditure, so every building department expenditure also is educational in character.

To direct properly the efforts of those who are doing the building and repair work of a city school system requires that the superintendent of schools, as well as the person drawing the plans, should be familiar with good hygienic standards, with the best practices in schoolhouse construction elsewhere, and also be somewhat familiar with tendencies and probable future needs in public education. On such

matters the superintendent of schools should be well informed.¹ On the financial side, maintenance costs as well as first costs, and methods of paying for the new equipment, should both be considered. These points, which are generally applicable to all cities, will be touched on very briefly here.

A new type of building needed. The time has come, everywhere, when the building of eight-room or twelve-room boxes, with windows regularly punctured in all of the outside walls, and with the only variation from typical classrooms being an office for the principal, usually on the

Kn.	1	2	3	4	5	6	Office Suite	Libr.	Play and Lunch Room	Auditorium
	7	8	9	10	11	12		Man. Tr.		
Kn.	13	14	15	16	17	18	Storage	Dom. Sci.	Science	
	19	20	21	22	23	24		Health Suite	Sewing	
Work Room	Disc. Rm.	Op. Rm.	Ungr. Rm.	Trs. Rm. P.-T. A.	2 Locker and Shower Rms.		4 Toilet Rooms		Play and Lunch Room	

FIG. 53. SPACE DISTRIBUTION OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OF TO-DAY

second floor over the entrance hall, should stop. Such buildings may have satisfied the needs of the 1870 to 1890 period, but they do not meet the needs of the present in public education. Neither do the school buildings of the 1900 period, which added a teachers' room and an assembly hall, and they will meet the needs of the future even less. With the rapid changes in the character of public education, the new type of curriculum now provided, the need for differen-

¹ A superintendent of schools should be familiar with such technical knowledge as to schoolhouse construction as is contained in Almack and Hill's *Schoolbuildings and Building Programs*, which forms another volume in this series of textbooks.

tiations in school work, and the tendency of public education to undertake new educational and community services, there is need to-day for the construction in our towns and cities of a new type of school building. The large amount of school-building reconstruction within recent years, and the entirely new type of elementary-school building which has been

12th Year	11th Year	Study Room	1	2	3	4	Physics	Auditorium
			5	6	7	8	Chemistry	
9th Year	10th Year	Study Room	9	10	11	12	Botany	
			13	14	15	16	Zoology	

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Admin.	Instruction										General Service				
Offices	1	2	3	4	5	6	A Laboratory		B		Auditorium				Cafeteria
Prin.-Deans Advisors-Clerks	7	8	9	10	11	12	C Space								
Teacher's Rooms	13	14	15	16	17	18	D								
Janitors and Supplies	19	20	21	22	23	24	Commercial				Gymnasium (Boys)	Show Rm.	Gymnasium (Girls)	Health and Phys. Educ.	
Toilet Space	25	26	27	28	29	30	Drawing								
Library	Study Hall	Music	31 Art	Home		Printing	Shop Space	Auto and Machine		Little Theatre	Student Activities				
				Econ.	Exhibit Room										
Study Hall				Suite	Sew- ing	Mill- inery									

FIG. 54. EVOLUTION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL BUILDING

evolved within the past two decades, have alike come from a desire to provide a school building in which a modern educational program may be carried on. Figure 53 shows, in the form of a diagram, what one might expect to find to-day in a thoroughly modern elementary-school building, and an examination of this rooms-and-space-distribution diagram will reveal how much the type of elementary-school building has been altered, since the nineties, to meet the needs of a modern teaching program.

Evolution of the high-school building. The high-school building, too, has experienced a quite similar evolution. In the earlier beginnings the high-school building was much like an elementary-school building, in that it consisted of a number of study and recitation rooms and the principal's office. As the specialization of the teaching force took place,

Classrooms & Admin.				Laboratories & Shops						General Service.			
1	2	3	4	Science		Mech. Draw.	Orchestra	Inst. Rm.	Choral Rm.	Cafeteria	Auditorium		
5	6	7	8	Science	Millinery	Wood Working	Little Theatre		Student Activities				
9	10	11	12	Sewing 1 2	Metal Work Storage	Printing	Art	Literature					
13	14	15	16						Cooking and Home Mkg.		Other Shop Work	Coml. Dept.	Library
17	18	19	20	Trs. Rm. Men		Trs. Din. Rm.	Trs. Rm. Wom.	Health Dept.	Toilet Space		Study Room		
Office Space	Clerical & Records	Storage											Gymn. (Girls)

FIG. 55. THE NEW JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL BUILDING ORGANIZATION

and with the addition of science teaching in the laboratory, a more elaborate type of high-school building was evolved in the later decades of the last century. This type of building has in turn been outgrown, and in many places remodeled and given to the new junior-high-school organization, while a new and better type of building, with larger grounds, has been erected in its stead. Figure 54 shows, in diagram form, the evolution which has taken place, and the type of cosmopolitan high-school building which has by now been evolved.

Where the junior-high-school organization has been evolved, which is the case in most of our cities, either the old high-school building has been made over for its use or an entirely new building has been erected. This new building has been designed, as is shown in Figure 55, to provide properly for a program designed to meet the peculiar educational needs of the early adolescent youth and to offer beginnings in pre-vocational work.

Due largely to the reorganization of curricula which has taken place generally in American school systems during the past decade and a half, many cities have been forced to consider as well the reorganization and reconstruction of their entire school plant.¹ This need has given rise to the school building survey, the essential features of which are a careful study of existing school plant and needs, and a statement of building requirements for the future. Sometimes the existing situation has been shown to be so bad that the almost complete abandonment of the existing school plant has been indicated, if adequate housing and instruction of the pupils is to be provided. At other times only minor changes and reconstructions have been indicated as desirable.

New construction standards. Along with the change of distribution of room space and character of school building has come a corresponding change in construction standards, and in almost every particular. Wood has given place to brick and concrete; the lighting has been changed from two sides to one; the heating and ventilation have been improved; in smoky cities the air supplied the rooms is washed; much better artificial lighting has been provided; many new forms of desks and tables have been introduced; the cleaning is done more thoroughly, and the building is more sanitary; the drinking fountain has supplanted the old tin cup and water pail; the toilet facilities have been vastly changed in character and usefulness; and in dozens of other ways the comfort, convenience, sanitation, and attractiveness of school buildings have been improved.

A large amount of important work has been done by architects and building-survey workers, during the past two

¹ Where the Gary or platoon plan has been introduced, quite fundamental building reconstruction has usually been found a necessity. The introduction of the junior high school also has called for rather fundamental building changes.

decades, in standardizing the many items that enter into the planning and construction of a school building. Standard forms, specifications, and arrangements have been worked out, and schoolhouse planning has been changed from masonry and carpentering into an expert piece of professional service, calling for much special knowledge and skill. The State, too, has helped along this process by the formulation and adoption of standard State School Building Codes, in which exact construction standards have been set up.

Still more, instead of crowding two-and three-story elementary-school buildings on a quarter of a city block, as used to be done quite commonly, and with almost no play space, the whole tendency of the past quarter of a century has been toward not over two-story buildings, outside of the largest cities, and the provision of ample playground space. A site of four to ten acres for a large elementary-school building, of five to twelve acres for a junior-high-school building, and of ten to twenty acres for a high-school building, where such space can still be had, are now desirable standards for school grounds, and with a half to a whole city block as a minimum even in the larger cities.

To secure the modern type of school buildings now needed, both the superintendent of schools and the architect employed must be reasonably familiar with the best of our theory and practice in the field of schoolhouse construction and sanitation. If the architect is not, then the duty devolves on the superintendent of seeing that he becomes acquainted with the main facts of such theory, and of insisting upon the incorporation of such in his plans. This involves a reasonably satisfactory knowledge, on the part of the superintendent of schools, of the scientific principles¹ which should control with reference to:

¹ No attempt will be made to state what these principles and standards are. For this the student must consult such a standard work on schoolhouse hygiene as Almack and Hill's *School Buildings and Building Programs*.

1. The location and orientation of school buildings.
2. The material to be used in construction.
3. Lighting arrangements.
4. Heating and ventilation.
5. Sanitary arrangements and equipment.
6. Schoolhouse conveniences and equipment.
7. Proper apportionment of space to different educational needs.
8. Proper playground and yard space.
9. Proper construction standards.

While the architecture of our school buildings to-day is more varied and more beautiful than ever before, the inside of the buildings has been so well standardized that score cards ¹ have been worked out, within the past two decades,

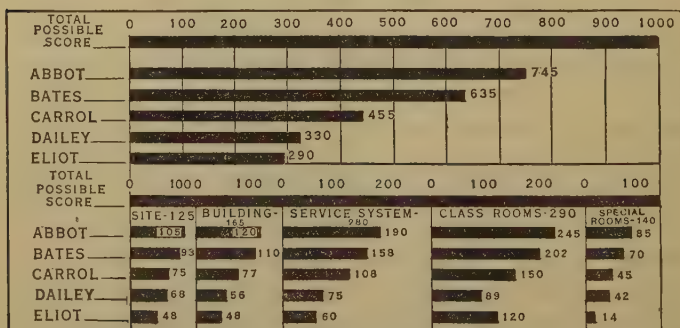


FIG. 56. FIVE SCHOOL BUILDINGS SCORED ON AN EFFICIENCY RATING SCALE

(Rated by the Strayer-Englehardt Score Card for City School Buildings.)

by means of which any school building may be rated. These score cards evaluate such points as size, form, placement, internal and external structure, heating, lighting, ventilation, cleaning system, fire protection, water supply, toilet

¹ The most generally used of these are the Strayer-Englehardt scales, which rate buildings on a scale of 1000 points. Three Score Cards have been developed—for City Schools, Rural Schools, and High Schools. Teachers College Bureau Publications, New York City.

facilities, classrooms, equipment, special rooms, offices, service rooms, and similar data.

Larger use of school buildings. All modern plans for all types of school buildings at once suggest larger community usefulness for them than the mere seat-work instruction of children for a few hours a day. A modern school building should be capable of being transformed into a community-center institution, ministering to the needs of both the children and the adults of the community, both in the day-time and in the evening and for almost the entire year. The branch library should be open the year round, and should be so placed as to be capable of being entered from the outside, and at times when other parts of the building are closed. The assembly hall, also, should be capable of use at any time without opening more than the entrance hall of the building. Both of these rooms naturally should be on the ground floor. The play-rooms and the play-yards also should be capable of use at times when the school building proper is closed. The same should be true of the shower-baths and swimming-pool, and the gymnasium.

The use of the school plant at other times and for other purposes than day schoolroom instruction may be said to be with us, as yet, in its beginnings, but the idea represents a desirable extension of the work and influence of the school. It means a large increase in the efficiency of the school plant, and much greater community-welfare returns for the money invested in the buildings, grounds, and equipment. The increased use of the plant and the increased community service rendered much more than compensate for the extra expense involved in extending the usefulness of the school. Evening-school work, evening lectures, reading rooms, vacation schools, children's playgrounds, recreational work for youths and adults, parents' meetings, civic-club meetings, and social meetings of various kinds are among the possibilities of a

school plant arranged as in the space-arrangements shown in Figures 53, 54, and 55.

Playground facilities and organization. Just as the theory as to the proper use of the school building has experienced a great change within recent years, so also has the theory as to the play facilities that need to be provided for the children of a city. In some of our cities playground commissions have been created to provide for meeting these needs, and much valuable work has been done in this way. Old parks have been enlarged and their usefulness extended, new ones have been acquired, special municipal playgrounds have been provided and equipped, and play directors have been employed and installed. The influence of this pioneer work is seen in the general demand that public schools be provided with larger and better playground facilities.

The separate organization and direction of public playgrounds, however, involves both an unnecessary duplication of effort and a very material increase in expenses. A municipal playground is expensive both to provide and to maintain, and it is in use but a small fraction of the time, while playgrounds organized as a part of the school system, and run in connection with the regular day and vacation schools, can be utilized practically all of the time. By organizing play as a part of the regular school curriculum, as is being done now by many of our city school systems, and then providing regular play teachers for the schools, the school playground can be utilized constantly from 8 A.M. to 6 P.M. every day, thus providing about ten times the play facilities which can be provided for under the municipal playground plan, and at less cost.

Play is essential to the proper development of all children, and play under good conditions may be said to be a child's fundamental right. The child's physical, intellectual, social, and moral development in part hinges about proper facilities

for play. Organized and directed play is worth much more than unorganized and undirected play, and the social and moral conditions surrounding children during such organized and directed play are much better. If directed play is provided as a regular part of the school curriculum, as it should be, the work can be so arranged as to be not only of value in itself but also of service in the general education of children. If organized in connection with the public school work and correlated with the work in physical training and health teaching, and especially with the vacation school work,¹ it can be made much more effective educationally than can ever be the case when organized separately under a playground commission. It will not only be more effective but it can also be organized and conducted at less expense.

Care of buildings. The cleaning and upkeep of the school buildings belong properly with this department. Where a properties department does not exist, then the business manager is the proper person to have charge of the janitor and repair force. The ordinary upkeep of the school buildings, and the summer repair and alteration work, is in large part educational in character, and all major expenditures should be approved by the superintendent of schools, and be done on requisition by the principals.

The employment, training, and supervision of the janitorial and engineering employees is an important function, and one too often neglected. Printed rules and regulations, instead of training and supervision, too often are depended

¹ In the conduct of the summer vacation schools, as at present organized, directed play forms a very important part of the instruction provided. Should our cities organize a twelve-months school, as many tendencies seem to indicate as a probable line of future city development, organized play will form a still more important part of school instruction, and the desirability of a close connection between school and playground will be emphasized. The large use of municipal playgrounds now is at times when the regular school is not in session.

upon to secure proper service. The result is a poor quality of schoolhouse heating and cleaning, often dirty and incompetent janitors and engineers, and not infrequently a type of service employee who is more important politically than is the principal, and sometimes the superintendent as well. The "turn-over" every year in janitorial and engineering employees, too, is large, and expensive. The remedy lies in careful selection on the basis of some type of service test, training for the work, early elimination of the unfit, and supervision after placed in service. While such a method costs more in the beginning, ultimately it costs less because of the better service obtained and the decreased turn-over. The cost for incompetent janitors and engineers is not only in the salaries paid them, but in the small amount and the poor quality of work they perform. Our larger cities are finding that training for the job and careful supervision actually pay good dividends.

Costs for buildings. The costs for school buildings and grounds have experienced a marked increase within the past two decades, due in part to the better material construction now demanded, in part to the introduction of better hygienic standards, in part to the introduction of new types of instruction which have required special rooms and equipment, in part to the demand for larger playground space for the children, and in particular to the marked increase in all building costs since the World War. These new developments and additions to our courses of instruction we now regard as necessities, the costs for building do not now seem likely to drop, and as a result the expense for school buildings is likely to increase rather than grow less in the future. This increased expense the public must be prepared to meet. The more the school makes itself of service to the community, and the better the community understands what the school is doing, the more willingly will the increased expense be met.

Payment for by tax or by bonding. There is one phase of the cost of a school-building which ought to be considered much more carefully by our American cities than now seems to be done, and that is the question of paying for the building by tax at the time of construction, or of deferring the

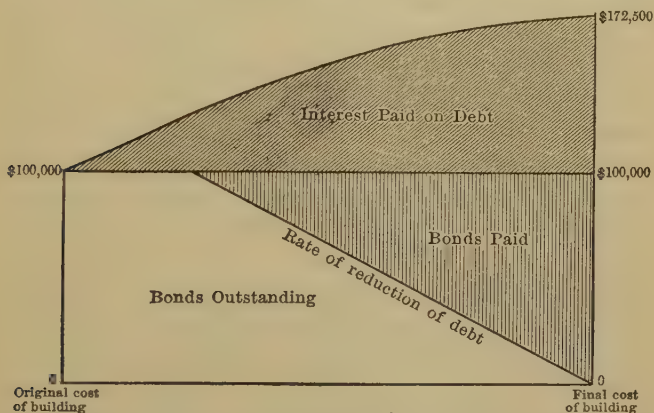


FIG. 57. PRINCIPAL AND INTEREST COST FOR A SCHOOL BUILDING

This drawing shows the results of building a \$100,000 school building, and paying for it by the issuance of 5 per cent 5- to 25-year bonds. In a city assessed for \$25,000,000, it would have cost the taxpayers only 40 cents on the \$100 of assessed valuation to have paid for the building in a single year, or 20 cents on the \$100 had the cost been spread over the two-year period covered by the erection of the building. The ultimate tax cost will be 69 cents on the \$100.

payment to some future time by issuing bonds. The practice of deferring payment to the future is becoming more and more common, and recently has shown a marked tendency to increase.¹ In some of our cities, due to peculiar condi-

¹ Up to 1909 the percentage of school debt to other city debt was but 2.2 per cent, and with a total outstanding school debt for all cities having a population of 30,000 or over of \$48,282,260. Since then the school debt has increased faster even than the municipal debt, being 6.6 per cent in 1912, and representing a total of \$74,949,343, and 7.7 per cent in 1925, and representing a total of \$512,309,011.

Our city school corporations have, however, been more careful in the

tions, such deferment may be almost a necessity, but the practice is in many ways undesirable, and often is entirely unnecessary where resorted to.¹

If some deferring of costs seems desirable it would be better if the period of time were made three or four years, and one third or one fourth of the cost paid each year by taxation,² instead of spreading the costs out over thirty to forty years, with the long drawn out interest charge. In addition to the larger costs involved, the deferred-payment plan puts a mortgage on the future which is likely to prove heavy to carry. Especially is this the case with elementary-school buildings of a type which will require large maintenance costs, and after from twenty-five to thirty-five years must be replaced.

Large future educational needs. If we could see anything to indicate that our American cities will, in the near future, reach the end in the development of their school systems, and that, say in twenty-five to fifty years from now, they

matter of bonded debt than any other department of our municipalities. Some cities have always paid for their school buildings as erected, and have never issued bonds. See table on "Gross, Funded, and Floating Debts of Cities," in the U.S. Census Bureau's annual publication entitled *Financial Statistics of Cities*, for a list of cities having no bonded school debt.

¹ The large initial cost for fireproof buildings makes them seem very costly and often leads to the voting of bonds to pay for them when this is unnecessary. Spread over the whole assessed valuation of the city the actual cost, to pay for them by tax the year they are built, often would be small — often as low, for each \$1000, of assessed valuation, as four or five good cigars or a couple of gallons of gasoline.

² What each city should have is the authorization to levy an annual building tax, sufficient to pay for a building in two to four years, and the authority to borrow if needed for temporary purposes. An annual building tax of 15 to 25 cents on the \$100 would provide for the ordinary building needs of most cities. In a city of 50,000 inhabitants, with 7000 children enrolled, increasing in population 3.5 per cent a year, and assessed for \$40,000,000, a yearly building tax of 20 cents on the \$100 will carry maintenance of school plant, replacements, and additions without bonding, unless unusual expenditures are necessitated.

will have all the needed school buildings constructed, then the plan of deferring payment by issuing bonds and spreading the costs over a period of years would not be so objectionable.

Those who have studied the problem most, however, can see no such end of the process. On the contrary, with the great change which is taking place in our conceptions as to the nature and place of public education, there is every indication that instruction and training at public expense will in time become by far the greatest business of a city or a State. In a quarter to a half a century from now public education is almost certain to be extended into fields of constructive service and human-welfare work which we now but dimly imagine. There is every probability, also, that everything that tends to conserve child life and advance child welfare, and hence the welfare of the race, as well as most of those efforts relating to the improvement of conditions surrounding adults and home life, will in time come to be regarded as a legitimate function of our systems of public education. If such should prove to be the case, then those cities will be best able to meet the large educational demands of the future, and in a really large way, which do not handicap themselves too heavily with bonded school debt now.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. A good school building is sometimes said to be the combined work of an artist, an engineer, a physician and hygiene expert, a school administrator, and an economist. Indicate the place of each in planning and erecting a school building.
2. Do you think the State should lay down hygienic and constructional standards which all communities should meet, and make provision for state inspection and approval of all plans for new school buildings and all major alterations in old ones? Should the state oversight extend to the architecture? Why?
3. Why is it particularly desirable that the head of the property

- department should be given the employment, control, and dismissal of the school janitors? In a smaller city where would you place such control?
4. Is it desirable to employ a regular school architect, or to throw open competition, under restrictions, to any responsible architect anywhere? Why?
 5. Is it desirable to have a standard type of school building, or to encourage individuality in the appearance of schools? Why?
 6. Should there be manual-training and domestic-science rooms and equipment in each building, or only at certain "centers"? If teachers or pupils have to move, which is the better plan?
 7. What ought a good janitor to know regarding his job?
 8. Many school janitors are willing and faithful, but relatively ignorant as to sanitary housekeeping. What would you do if you found such a condition in a small city school system, where there was only a school clerk to look after both business and property?
 9. What kind of records should a school janitor keep? A school-building engineer?
 10. Should the engine room of a school building be kept as clean as a kitchen? Why?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Proper standards as to schoolhouse site, and the location and orientation of a school building.
2. Size, lighting, and equipment of a standard classroom.
3. School-toilet facilities.
4. School baths and pools.
5. School heating and ventilation.
6. Evening lectures at schoolhouses.
7. Recreational work at schoolhouses.
8. Schools as civic and social centers.
9. Unit costs for school buildings of different types.
10. The platoon building plans and costs.
11. The sanitary problems of a schoolhouse.
12. Fumigation of books and buildings.
13. Qualifications and duties of a school janitor.
14. Training courses for janitorial and engineering service.
15. Different methods employed in securing janitorial service — direct employment and supervision, the custodial-pay plan, and the contract system.

PROBLEMS

1. Suppose that you were to be asked to give an architect the general specifications as to room needs for an elementary-school building to house 700 children. What rooms, how many of each, and what size (in terms of a classroom as a standard) would you provide? How much land should you have?
2. Suppose that your city decided to train all new janitors for their work. What would you teach them, and how would you do it?
3. Figure out and verify the statements made in footnote 2, page 572.

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School Survey Reports. Practically all modern school survey *Reports* contain good chapters on buildings and grounds. In addition, there have been a number of special school-building survey *Reports* issued, within recent years. Of the latter see especially those of Berkeley (California), Cedar Rapids (Iowa), Hamtrack (Michigan), and St. Joseph (Missouri).

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE ATTENDANCE DEPARTMENT

The compulsion to attend. Every State in the Union now has some type of compulsory-attendance law. Sixty-six years elapsed before what Massachusetts began in 1852 was accepted as a principle of action by the people of all our States.¹ At first the laws were optional in character, and not infrequently had to be accepted by a vote of the people of a city, or town, or county. Later the law was made state-wide in application, but the compulsory period each year was short. Since then the struggle has been to lengthen the period of required attendance, to extend the age limits of the compulsory period downward and upward, to apply the provisions of the law to children attending private and parochial schools, to secure proper census information to form a basis for the enforcement of the law, to connect school attendance laws with child labor legislation, and to require the appointment of attendance officers to enforce the provisions of the law.

So far the success of these laws has been almost wholly in the cities and larger towns, and in some of the county-unit school systems. In most of our States the laws relating

¹ The first State to enact a compulsory-attendance law was Massachusetts, in 1852. Then came New York in 1853, Vermont in 1867, New Hampshire, Michigan, and Washington Territory in 1871, and Connecticut and New Mexico Territory in 1872. By 1880 sixteen States and territories, by 1890 twenty-six States, and by 1900 thirty-one States had enacted some form of a compulsory-attendance law. With the enactment of such a law by Mississippi, in 1918, every State had finally become committed to the policy of requiring children between certain ages to attend school for some part of their lives, and for a part or all of the school term.

to compulsory school attendance are as yet but poorly enforced, outside of a few cities, and it is the larger cities which have made the greatest success in carrying out both the letter and the spirit of the attendance laws. The reason that the cities have been most successful in enforcing these laws is that they have taken the matter seriously, have created special departments, classes, and schools, and have appointed special types of teachers and officers to carry out the provisions of these laws. To-day, one measure of the efficiency of a school system is the percentage of the school population continuously in school; another is the percentage of children who have passed the compulsory age limit who continue in school.

Differences and difficulties. After schools have been created for the instruction of the children of a community, they fail of their purpose to the degree to which children fail to attend. That some compulsion is necessary to secure the desired school attendance, in the case of a varying percentage of the children of school age in different communities, is a matter of common knowledge. To secure the desired attendance the States have placed back of the local school authorities a series of compulsory-attendance laws. These different state compulsory attendance laws vary much in the age limits for compulsion, the period of attendance at school required each year, the means provided for enforcing the law, the relation of the public schools to private and parochial schools with regard to enforcement, and the relation of compulsory attendance to child labor in the State. While a few States have made excellent provision for the enforcement of school attendance, in many other States the enforcement officers, when appointed, are given but little authority to handle the really difficult cases, and but meager special facilities for the control of truants and incorrigibles are permitted or provided.

In part this condition is due to the attitude of our people, many of whom have not as yet seen the necessity for such laws; in part to the desire of parents to get their children at work for the wages they may bring in; in part to the attitude of teachers and school principals, many of whom do not want street children brought into their schools; in part to the attitude of the school authorities, who do not want to go to the expense of enforcing the law and, in addition, providing special classes and schools to meet the needs of those brought in; in part to the lack of adequate census records as to children who ought to be in school and are not; in part to the rather general absence of any defined relationship between private and public education in the matters of attendance, and the character of instruction; in part to inadequate child-labor laws, or the lack of proper enforcement of those existing; and in part to the somewhat general lack of any provision for extension or vocational training for the older pupils who might be induced or who would be compelled to attend.

The difficulties which have been met with in the enforcement of attendance laws have indicated three main needs, namely:

(1) Better plans for the registration of children of the compulsory-attendance ages.

(2) Better means and methods for the enforcement of the attendance and child-labor laws.

(3) Provision of specialized instruction to meet the needs of the new children brought into the schools.

The tendency of our States to extend the time of required attendance at school to the sixteenth year, and to require attendance every day the schools are in session, as well as the tendency to enact part-time-schooling and continuation school legislation requiring partial attendance up to eighteen years of age, together have given new emphasis

to the need for specialized and differentiated instruction in the schools.

1. *Better registration of school children*

The school census. The first difficulty which is faced, somewhat generally, in any attempt to enforce school-attendance legislation, is the absence of any adequate records as to what children there are in the community and who ought to be in school. The usual state school census is taken primarily for purposes of the apportionment of school funds, and not for purposes of enforcing compulsory-attendance and child-labor laws. What is called for is the number of children of the legal school age, such as five to eighteen, six to twenty, or seven to fifteen, the legal school ages varying in the different States. Sometimes two or three group-ages are collected, such as five to seven, eight to fifteen, and sixteen to eighteen, but again such figures are of little real value. In some States a school census is taken only once in two years, and in a few States no school census of any kind is taken.

In the absence of any accurate data as to ages, number, or location of the children of school age in a city school district, neither the attendance officers nor the principals can know, with any degree of accuracy, what children should report for school at the beginning of any school year. Neither do they know, usually, what children are attending private or parochial schools instead of the public schools, nor how regularly they attend such schools. The lack of accurate age and residence data, and the somewhat general lack of coöperation between public and private educational agencies in the enforcement of attendance laws, are serious defects which need to be remedied.

What is needed, as a prerequisite to any adequate enforcement of compulsory-attendance and child-labor laws, is an accurate school census. This should be kept on card forms,

so as to be capable of being sorted into any grouping which may seem desirable. There should be a card for each child, containing: ¹

- (a) Name of child (surname first).
- (b) Sex of child.
- (c) Month, day, and year of birth, from which the number of years old, at last birthday, is also to be set down. The authority upon which the age is taken (word of parent; Bible record; birth certificate; baptismal certificate; passport; etc.,) should also be indicated, to serve as a basis for age and working certificates later on.
- (d) Country of birth, and nationality of father and mother.
- (e) Name of parent (father or mother), guardian, or other person standing in parental relation.
- (f) Abode, including school attendance district; post-office address; and, if in cities, street, number, and apartment or flat.
- (g) Physical condition (good; deaf; dumb; blind; crippled).
- (h) Mental condition (good; otherwise).
- (i) School attending (public, private, parochial), and name of.
- (j) Position in school (grade).
- (k) Reason, if not attending school.
- (l) If employed, where and how.
- (m) Vaccination certificate record.

All such records should be kept in duplicate, one set at the attendance department office, and the other at the office of the principal of the school attended, be it public, private, or parochial.

A continuing school census. After such data have once been collected and tabulated, by ages, by schools attended, and by attendance districts, the data should be kept fresh and accurate by means of continuous corrections. A complete new census need not be taken very often, and not necessarily for the entire city at any one time. To keep a con-

¹ From the author's *State and County Educational Reorganization*, Sec. 221. Similar data are called for by a number of our larger cities in the continuing school census which they take.

tinuing census, by which is meant a constant correction of the data, is much more important. To do this it should be made the legal duty of parents or guardians, and of all public, private, and parochial school authorities, to report at once all changes in residence or in schools, and all new children entering the district or any school in it should be reported at once and cards should be made up for them. By making it the duty of schools, teachers, parents, police, and charity organizations to report changes, and by imposing small fines for violation of the requirement, our States could in time secure from our people data from which reasonably accurate school-census records could be constantly at hand, and from which compulsory-attendance and child-labor laws could be carefully and fully enforced. In the larger cities additional means, such as the requirement that moving and express wagons be licensed, and that owners be required to report changes in tenants, also probably would need to be imposed.

It is only by some such means that any accurate and continuing census of children of attendance ages can be compiled and kept accurate. Few American States are as yet ready for such general legislation. The beginnings will have to be made by laws authorizing cities to establish such attendance and census departments, and permitting them to enforce such laws within their own boundaries.¹ In time we shall in all probability come to a somewhat general state enforcement of some such provisions. The provision of public education as a state necessity, without the natural corollary that all within certain age limits be required to par-

¹ New York City forms our best example of a city with special school-census powers. The law for this city probably represents as yet our best attendance legislation. Philadelphia is another city which has done excellent work in the collection of census data and the enforcement of compulsory attendance. Los Angeles is another city which has taken its attendance duties seriously.

take of the advantages provided, is hardly a defensible procedure.

The cost of taking and maintaining such a school census naturally will be somewhat higher than for taking the present type, but its value will be out of all proportion to the increased cost. Aside from forming a basis for the apportionment of school funds, the present form of school census is of little real value for any purpose. It also is commonly taken on sheets, bound in a book or rolled up, and is but little used for attendance purposes. The card form is serviceable. A small force of record clerks will of course be needed to keep the records accurate. Most of the work of house-to-house revision can be accomplished by the attendance officer, the principal, the teachers, and the school nurses, while important regional check-ups can be made by the attendance officer during vacation periods, and at no large extra expense. Such a plan for census records also involves the education of many communities up to new and larger conceptions as to the work and purpose of public education.

Unless definite and adequate pupil records are available, the attendance officers work, in a way, in the dark. They take up children found on the streets and investigate absences, but the information needed as to the children who ought to be in school and are not there is lacking because the usual census data is of little value for purposes of enforcing school attendance.

2. Better means for enforcing attendance

The attendance department. Not every city has provided for the appointment of an attendance officer to enforce the state law, and where this has been done we find the work in all stages of development from the appointment of a single "hookey-cop" to the organization of a capable and effective attendance department.

In a small city a single attendance officer, employed by the board of education, and working under the direction of the superintendent of schools and in coöperation with principals and teachers, is about the best which now can be provided. The work of this officer will be to receive daily reports by telephone from the schools and other sources as to the non-attendance of children; to visit the homes of such children as are reported absent; to ascertain the reasons for their non-attendance; to take up on the streets children found there during school hours; to receive applications for labor permits, and to issue the same after investigation; to serve notices on parents as to violations of the law; and, in extreme cases, to enter and follow up prosecutions. It is the business of the attendance officer to guard the educational rights of children, and in doing so he represents the superintendent of instruction, the teachers, and the State.

The following record of the work of an attendance officer, in a city of approximately fourteen thousand inhabitants, employing one man to attend to the work, and not maintaining a parental school, will illustrate the nature of the duties of such an official in a small city:

Number of cases reported to office.	267
(a) By principals and teachers.	221
(b) By citizens.	15
(c) By policemen.	31
Number of cases investigated.	251
Children kept at home.	207
(a) By parents (temporary necessity).	48
(b) By parents (neglect).	89
(c) By sickness.	47
(d) By poverty.	23
Children withdrawn and sent to work.	14
(a) Compulsory age passed.	10
(b) Illegally.	4
Children having left city.	9
Children truant unknown to parents.	21

Children returned to school.....	232
Parents of children dealt with.....	183
(a) Warned.....	171
(b) Brought before officer.....	12
Children brought before Juvenile Court....	12
(a) Put on probation.....	10
(b) Sent to State Training School.....	2
Cases reported to the Associated Charities..	23
Labor permits applied for.....	132
Labor permits issued, after investigation...	116

In a larger city the attendance work naturally will require a larger staff, and in large cities there is a division of the city into attendance districts for the better prosecution of the work. The position of the attendance department in the educational organization of a large city is shown in Figure 21. In such a city the attendance officers will coöperate closely with the parental school or schools, the special ungraded rooms for troublesome cases and defective children, the school nurse, the visiting teacher, the juvenile court, the charity workers, and the private and parochial schools. Offering, as we do, to parents the choice of the kind of school to which they will send their children, it is only proper that the public school attendance officers should enforce, without charge, attendance at private and parochial schools as well as at public schools. This naturally involves full coöperation between private and parochial schools on the one hand and the public school authorities on the other.

Increased school attendance. As will be seen from the preceding report of the work of an attendance officer in a small city, his handling of the cases which were reported to him was quite satisfactory. His services to the city fully justified his appointment. His presence and his official activity also doubtless kept other children and other parents from doing things which would have resulted in their being reported to him. His work thus has a preventive, as well as

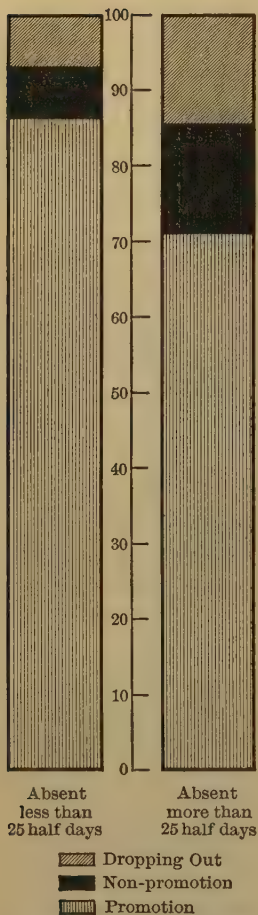


FIG. 58. EFFECT OF ABSENCE ON PROMOTION RATE AND DROPPING FROM SCHOOL

(From *The Study of Over-Age and Progress in the Public Schools of Dayton, Ohio.*)

¹ See Ayres, L. P.: "Irregular Attendance the Cause of Retardation"; in *Psychological Clinic*, vol. 3, pp. 1-9. (March, 1909.)

a correctional value. It also is safe to say that by reason of his official existence and work both the regularity of attendance of children enrolled and the total number of children in attendance were materially increased.

The increased regularity of attendance of children enrolled is of itself an important item, as all studies have shown a close correlation between retardation and dropping from school on the one hand, and irregular attendance on the other.¹ As for the increased total attendance, if the state and county school funds had been apportioned to this city wholly, or even partially, on the basis of attendance, instead of on school census, as is done in a number of our American States, it is probable that this attendance officer would have earned for the city a substantial portion of the salary paid him.

The attendance officer. In no respect has the enforcement of attendance at school changed more, within the past decade and a half, than in the type of attendance officer employed and the conceptions of his work. The old-time truant officer concerned himself

with cases, but seldom with causes. He relied chiefly upon fear, and but little upon understanding and coöperation. He went on the theory that if a pupil were absent from school it was because of some perversity that called for punishment, and he forced the pupil back into school without an attempt to change conditions. Truant officers, too, were selected casually from among the citizenship, and often the city police were used for the work.

To-day, in the cities and States where the best work is being done, all this is changed. The officers are not only to enforce the attendance law, but also to "sell" the idea of education to those parents who have not as yet come to appreciate its value for their children, and to bring about better adjustments between the home and the school. Every instance of truancy now raises the question, "Why?" and it is the job of the attendance officer to answer that question and then to remove, as far as can be done, the causes of that truancy. The attendance officer now must be certificated, and must have the qualifications, and often the experience as well, of a teacher. To awaken an appreciation of the value of education among the foreign-born, the colored population, the native-white illiterates, and other offending classes, calls for good education and personality, tact, decision, good judgment, executive capacity, an appreciation of the importance of the school, and the ability to use force when force is the quality to display. To enforce the law the officer needs legal authority, and usually he is vested with the authority of a deputy sheriff, but he, or she, goes into the homes as a representative of the school rather than of the law. The problem is understanding and the removal of causes, legal pressure being only a last resort.

The activities of an attendance officer are many and varied, the work at times strenuous, and the hours often long. He deals with the home problems which result in the

non-attendance of children, with almost no two cases alike. He helps to take and to keep the school census up to date. He talks to pupils, teachers, and parents as to the nature and importance of his work. He helps private and parochial schools in the establishment of records and the enforcement of attendance there. He coöperates with the health and physical-welfare workers in investigating conditions, and reporting cases. He issues working permits, looks after attendance under the part-time-schooling laws, and looks for violations of the child-labor laws. In vacation periods he checks and rechecks the census data. By persuasion or force he compels parents to send their children to school, he improves school work by improving both attendance and attitudes, and he promotes the public welfare by improving home and school relations which in turn lead to better citizenship training. A good attendance officer to-day is far removed from the "hookey-cop" of two decades ago.

The visiting teacher. A new helper with difficult cases, intermediate between the teacher and principal on the one hand and the attendance officer on the other, has been added recently in the form of the Visiting Teacher. Beginning first about two decades ago, and as yet confined to the larger cities, the services rendered by this teacher have proved so useful and helpful that it is not unreasonable to expect that before long such a personage will be added in every city that is making a serious attempt to enforce the compulsory-attendance laws and provide a proper health and physical-welfare service.

Such a teacher has an office and office hours, in the school building or at the central office, according to the size of the city and the scope of the service rendered, and to her are referred, for investigation or handling, the difficult pupil-cases the school work develops. Children irregular in attendance, children deficient in scholarship, cases of probable

home neglect or underfeeding, cases involving moral delinquency, serious cases of discipline, and incorrigibles are referred to the visiting teacher for special investigation and report. The visiting teacher sees the child and talks with the teacher, analyzes the case, visits the home, sees the parent, tries to gain the family confidence, when necessary secures the coöperation of other social agencies in the community, represents the school in relations with the home and the home in relations with the school, suggests readjustments or changes in school work, follows up the case much as does the visiting nurse her cases, and occasionally enforces the law to protect the child. The visiting teacher thus comes into close and intimate relations with the homes.

The visiting teacher thus can be of very large assistance to both the attendance and the health departments. She helps in the handling of the most difficult and time-consuming cases, thus saving the time of other teachers and officers for other work. Each irregular and difficult case thus becomes a special-study problem, and the causes underlying the trouble are ascertained and, so far as possible, removed. In smaller cities, and where the work is in its beginnings, the work of the visiting teacher and the visiting nurse may be combined.

3. *Provision of specialized instruction*

Need for special classes. From the beginning of our attempts to enforce compulsory-education laws it has been found that special adjustments within the schools, in addition to an attendance department of the right type, were necessary to meet the peculiar needs of many of the children brought in from the streets. This has been particularly the case in communities where compulsory attendance has been only indifferently enforced in previous years, and where many truants, incorrigibles, and neglected children of school

age are on the streets. To bring these children into the ordinary school often tends to a demoralization of the school-room procedure. Such pupils do not profit by the ordinary classroom instruction, and their influence often is positively bad. In the past, unable to handle such pupils, the school has expelled them and turned them loose on the streets. With the recent tendency of our States to insist on these pupils being brought back into school, and the further tendency of our more progressive States to insist upon school attendance until the age of sixteen, and for all the time the schools are in session, the need for some special adjustment of the instruction to meet the peculiar needs of such children is much more pressing than it used to be.¹ The problem of the handicapped — the deaf, blind, crippled, tubercular, and subnormal mentally — as well as the problem of the children of needy, sick, or dependent parents, also calls for special adjustments and consideration.

It is soon seen that the logical outcome of any attempt at the general compulsory education of all, up to fifteen or sixteen years of age and for every day the schools are in session, demands the provision of a large number of different types of educational opportunities, through which every boy and girl in the community may find in the school a type of education suited to his or her peculiar needs. Otherwise we shall only be forcing children into schools from which they get little of value and where they often become a nuisance, with a resulting increase in retardation, troublesome cases, and corporal punishment, and, in reality, defeat the

¹ "By steadily raising the age of compulsory attendance, the schools have come to contain many children who, having no natural appetite for study, would under the old régime have left school early. Compulsory attendance laws do not create brain capacity nor modify hereditary tendencies; they only throw responsibility for doing both upon the schools and create expectancy in the public." (G. H. Martin, in *Report of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, 1903-04*, p. 98.)

citizenship ends for which these schools primarily stand. The whole question of compulsory attendance is tied up closely with the problems of flexible promotion, adjustment of instruction to individual needs, provision of special-type schools, reorganization of the work of the upper grades, increasing the opportunities for vocational training, and, as a result, materially increasing both the efficiency and the cost of public education.

Types of special schools needed. In addition to the adjustments and differentiations just indicated, city school systems have need of at least two special types of schools intended primarily to deal with difficult cases, and cities of sufficient size should add a third type.

The first is the disciplinary class, at least one of which should exist in the smaller cities, and in the larger cities one such room probably could be advantageously organized in connection with every large elementary school. Such classes would of course be ungraded classes, taught by specially capable teachers, and should not attempt to handle over about twenty pupils. To this room or school the principals should have power to commit pupils, their stay in such usually being somewhat brief. The purpose is to handle, in an efficient and orderly manner, and to turn back if possible into the main current of the school, those who have begun to manifest difficulty in fitting into the work of the ordinary school.

The second is a central school for over-age and peculiar boys and girls. This type of class goes under various names, as the transfer class, the opportunity class, the pre-vocational class, the intermediate-school class, and other somewhat similar terms. In these classes the sexes usually are separated, the classes of over-age and backward pupils are transferred to a special and technically-equipped building, or to the high school, and teachers who are especially capable

in handling such pupils are assigned to these classes. Such a class or school should emphasize music, drawing, English usage, manual and domestic activities, constructional and pre-vocational work, dramatics, and group-organization activities. From this school the pupils may in turn be graduated into a regular trade school or a manual arts school, if such exists, though most of the pupils in such classes will pass out into life soon after the end of the period of compulsory school attendance, returning only for the part-time study required by law. The instruction for such pupils ought to lead them toward such trades or occupations as they are likely to become successful in, such as carpentry, bricklaying, plastering, plumbing, electrical work, printing, automobile repairing, acting as chauffeur, gardening, cooking, sewing, serving, etc.

The parental school. The third type of special school needed is the parental school. All larger cities should provide such a school, and medium-sized cities could do so, on a smaller scale. By coöperation with a county-unit school system, even small cities could jointly maintain such a school. To the parental school may be committed, for an indeterminate sentence, those boys and girls who cannot be controlled in the disciplinary classes and who are not prepared to fit into the work of the second type of special school. Some of these will be of the habitual truant class, and some will be of the chronically disobedient and disorderly type. Many of these pupils can be turned back into the ordinary school, but some will not greatly profit there.

Parental schools are of two main types:

In one, which is perhaps the type most commonly found, the work is heavy; the commitment is formal and involves permanent residence at the school until paroled; and the course of instruction is more individual, and emphasizes military drill, manual and domestic activities, agricultural

work, music, and constructional undertakings. The hours are long, the theory of the school being to make the truant or incorrigible want to reinstate himself or herself in the regular school, while developing in him or her sufficient self-control to enable this to be brought about.

The other type of parental school recognizes the pupil as "a highly specialized, poorly organized individual, whose powers of correlation are weak"; imposes few conditions on him; treats him tolerantly and kindly; and aims to discover interests upon which the building of his character may be begun. Those who do not seem to be able to return to the regular school are taken from the parental school, as soon as they have discovered that the world is their friend rather than their enemy, and are sent to the special school, described under the second type, on a preceding page.

In a general way the first type of parental school fits into the needs of the smaller and medium-sized cities better, where living conditions are not especially bad and where home control has been weak. The second type of parental school is perhaps better suited to the needs of the large cities, where slum and tenement conditions cause trouble, and where children may never have had a fair chance.

With a few pupils all of these types of specialized instruction will fail, and such will need to be committed to a state institutional school, for a period of years.

The educational opportunity. The educational problem which faces any city to-day is how best to educate *all* of its boys and girls until they have completed the period of required school attendance. If this is until the boy or girl reaches the age of sixteen, as present tendencies seem to indicate will in time come to be the case generally, it should be the ambition, as it is the opportunity, of every community to get practically every mentally normal boy and girl through the six elementary-school grades and some type of

junior-high-school course. This means the completion of the ninth grade work, in some type of school, by practically

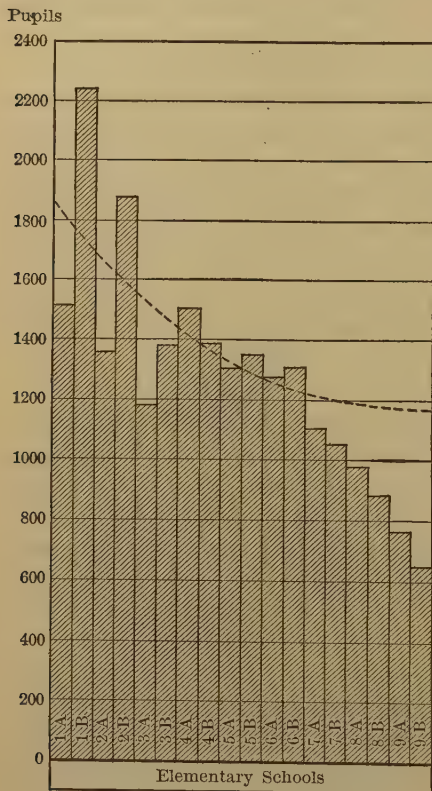


FIG. 59. SHOWING DECLINE IN ATTENDANCE AFTER THE SIXTH GRADE

The Oregon laws require attendance at school until the end of the fifteenth year of age. The retardation of pupils here was such that many reached this age while in the sixth grade. The dotted line indicates the curve of possible attendance. (From the Portland, Oregon, *School Survey Report*.)

all normal or approximately normal children. The present "miring in the grades" ought to be eliminated, as completely as is possible, and the "mired-down" pupils pushed on into work of a type which they can do. The big dropping-off at the end of the sixth grade ought also to give way to a rather steady curve onward to the end of the ninth grade. To do this means that a community must realize both its educational responsibilities and its educational opportunities, and must provide the types of schools, the differentiations in instruction, and the type of supervision which will

make such a desirable condition possible. Flexible promo-

tional schemes, differentiated courses of study, all needed types of special schools, good health supervision and instruction, vocational guidance of youth, and the support of a well-managed attendance department are all means to this end. Every child in the community should be given education long enough and advanced enough to prepare him or her for personal usefulness and efficiency in life, and of a type that will prepare him or her to fit into the political, industrial, social, or domestic life of which he or she ultimately will form a unit.

The whole aim and purpose of an attendance department in a city school system, and of the special classes and schools which should go along with it, is that it should form another means by which communities may be enabled to attain to this desirable goal for their children. The city school system of to-day, which enrolls but fifty to sixty per cent of a reported school census, and fails to hold fifteen to twenty-five per cent of the enrollment for half of the school year, cannot be rated as a very efficient community agency. To change such a condition will involve the expenditure of more money for education, but it is probable that, in time, the increased money will be returned to the city in the increased civic interest and productive capacity of its citizens, and in the decreased poverty, criminality, and prostitution found among the members of its population.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Show how the changes to the factory system and the growth of manufacturing cities have made compulsory education an increasing necessity.
2. Would one be warranted in saying that the character of the compulsory school-attendance law in any State is an index to the popular interest in child protection? Why?
3. Some States entitle their compulsory-education law "An Act to Enforce the Educational Rights of Children." Show that

this is a better title than "Compulsory School-Attendance Law."

4. State the argument, based on the new industrial and social conditions, for requiring the attendance at school of unemployed minors up to eighteen years of age.
5. Indicate the educational and financial consequences of accepting the idea that all children are entitled to as good an education as their powers permit and their needs require.
6. Why is it that the years from fourteen to sixteen can be more profitably spent at school than at work?
7. Should a state school-fund apportionment law place a money premium on the enforcement of the compulsory-attendance law? How may this be done?
8. Should labor permits be issued by the school department of attendance exclusively? Why?
9. Some of our cities use the police force for attendance officers. Is this desirable, or not? Why?
10. Would the class of children brought into the schools by the first real enforcement of a compulsory-attendance law be a more difficult class to deal with than would be found after a dozen years of close enforcement? Why?
11. Explain the recent great interest in the education of handicapped children, after the age-long neglect of these classes.
12. In what way has the increase of immigration made compulsory school attendance more necessary with us?
13. In what ways has the break-down of the old apprentice system tended to complicate the educational problem?
14. In what ways has the mere growth of the modern city increased the school's responsibility for (a) the physical, (b) the ethical, and (c) the economic welfare of the child, in addition to the former (d) intellectual welfare?
15. To what extent and in what communities is the compulsory-attendance law of your State enforced? What steps should be taken to secure a better enforcement?
16. What relation do private and parochial schools in your State bear to the state schools in the matter of enforcing attendance and making reports? What relations should exist?
17. Are there any state requirements as to the quality or character of instruction which must be maintained in non-state schools to enable them to satisfy the requirements of the compulsory-attendance law? If not, would some state approval be justified?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. What plan for checking-up pupils and enforcing attendance is used in the city in your State which best enforces the compulsory-attendance law? Who issues the child-labor permits, and how are they issued?
2. Outline the type of school census returns you would think desirable for a residential city of 25,000 inhabitants, and for a manufacturing and commercial city of 250,000 inhabitants.
3. Show what changes in the state census forms used in your State are necessary to form a basis for an adequate enforcement of the compulsory-attendance law.
4. The development of compulsory education, with special reference to enforcement and tendencies, in the United States.
5. The work of some State Child Welfare Commission.
6. The Commonwealth Fund program for the Prevention of Delinquency.
7. The work of the Juvenile Court.
8. The day-by-day work of an attendance officer.

PROBLEMS

1. A city of 15,000 inhabitants has a population of school age of 3500. Of these 60 per cent are enrolled in the schools during the year, and the average daily attendance for the year is 75 per cent of the enrollment. The term is 200 days, and the state grant of money includes a grant of 5 cents per pupil per day of actual attendance.

An attendance officer is now employed, at \$100 a month for twelve months, the two summer months to be spent in re-checking the school census. By his presence and work the enrollment is now increased to 65 per cent of the census, and the attendance to 80 per cent of the enrollment. About what percentage of his salary has he earned? How many children has he put into the schools? What effect will this work have on the cost of education in the city?

2. Statistics for two cities in the same State show that, of all children in each city, the following percentages were enrolled in public, private, and parochial schools the past year:

AGE LIMITS	CITY A (per cent)	CITY B (per cent)
6 to 7 years of age	58	63
7 to 8	76	81
8 to 9	94	96
9 to 10	95	97
10 to 11	93	95
11 to 12	90	93
12 to 13	88	92
13 to 14	82	88
14 to 15	66	80
15 to 16	60	70
16 to 17	48	60
17 to 18	36	50

Chart the data in the form of curves, and deduce therefrom the general nature of the state law, and the extent of its enforcement in the two cities.

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CHAPTER XXIX

THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND PHYSICAL WELFARE

Health supervision necessary. As soon as we begin to study questions of efficiency in instruction, in an effort to improve the school output and eliminate waste, we run at once into questions of health, as they relate to both teachers and pupils. Even a cursory examination of almost any school will reveal serious defects of ears, eyes, nose, throat, lungs, teeth, glands, heart action, nutrition, and nervous coördination on the part of children. When we consider how much such defects must interfere with the efficiency of the instruction given, the need for some adequate system of health supervision, if the schools are to obtain good results, becomes apparent.¹ School health supervision, now undertaken by many nations, is only another phase of the recent efficiency and conservation movements.

No marked economy in school work or increase in the efficiency of instruction is possible if we are to continue to work with poor tools or poor materials. A teacher lacking in health and physical vigor is not likely to prove high in teaching efficiency, and pupils who are suffering from disease or from lack of proper home care or nourishment are in no condition to take any large advantage of the instruction which is provided. It is, in reality, a waste of money

¹ "The health supervision of schools is not a passing fad. The conservation of the child is a problem which, like that of world peace, is bound to take possession of the minds of all humanitarian people. To the ethical principle of humanitarianism is added the stern counsel of biological laws, which teach us that an elaborate scheme of mental culture which proceeds without regard to the needs of the body is but a house built upon the sands." (Hoag and Terman: *Health Work in the Schools*, p. 1.)

to spend six to twelve dollars a day on a teacher, and four to eight dollars a day more per room on equipment, upkeep, maintenance, and overhead charges, and neglect entirely the fact that from twenty to seventy per cent of the children in the room are not in that physical condition which will enable them to partake with greatest advantage of the instruction which is being provided.¹ No business would neglect so important a source of waste. If, by the expenditure of a small additional sum, a large portion of this waste could be eliminated, a business corporation would consider it good policy to do so.

Three stages of development. Health work in the schools presents three clearly defined stages in its development.²

The first was what was known as "medical inspection," the purpose of which was to detect the presence of contagious diseases and prevent their spread in the schools and in the community. In reality such service was merely an extension into the schoolrooms of the work of the local board of health. The work began in Boston, in 1894, as a result of a series of epidemics among school children there.³ Chicago followed in 1895, New York City in 1897, and Philadelphia in 1898. From these larger cities the movement spread rapidly to the smaller cities, about ninety cities having provided such service by 1908, three hundred and thirty-seven by 1910, nearly five hundred by 1913, and approximately eleven hundred cities by 1919. By 1915, twenty-six States

¹ In Boston, in 1922, the percentage was 50; in the State of Pennsylvania, in 1921, the percentage was 74, for children living in districts having a population of 5000 or less; and in New York State, in 1924, the percentage of physical defects was 61.5.

² Epitomized from Hoag and Terman's *Health Work in the Schools*, chap. II.

³ The city was divided into fifty medical-inspection districts, and fifty physicians were appointed to inspect the schools for disease. Chicago began with nine districts and inspectors, Philadelphia with fifteen, and New York City with one hundred and thirty-four inspectors.

had enacted some form of legislation regarding school health supervision, and by 1923 the number had increased to thirty-nine.

The second stage is represented by an extension of the scope of the work to include examinations for non-contagious physical defects, such as those of the eye, ear, nose, throat, teeth, heart action, nutrition, and nervous coördination. It was at once seen that many of these defects have an important influence on the child's school progress, and that many of them were easily curable or removable. While detecting contagious diseases was important, and the finding of physical defects had value, the whole work, it soon was seen, was of little use unless something was done about it.¹ At this stage the school nurse was added to the school physician. The first school nurses² were added by New York City, in 1902, and by Philadelphia, in 1903. The results from this work have been so beneficial that more than half of our cities, including most of the larger ones, have added doctors and school nurses and now have undertaken to give their children examinations for physical defectiveness, and to advise parents as to needs.

The third stage passes beyond these two earlier ones, and enters the field of preventive work. As a program, it is occupied far less with disease than with building up health. Its keynote is the cultivation of the health of all, and the prevention of defectiveness in any by the hygienic supervision of the child in all his school activities. This third and

¹ The results, for a long time, seemed discouragingly small. The difficulty lay in that the emphasis was put in the wrong place. Finding and correcting disease is of much less importance than preventing disease by an organized program of health building.

² In Chicago, the Visiting Nursing Association provided a nurse, in 1901, but the city did not take over the school nurse until 1910. Similarly, nurses were provided in Boston, in 1905, the School Committee taking them over in 1907.

most important phase of health supervision is as yet only in its beginnings, but in time it is destined to supersede the two earlier forms, and to be extended to include rural schools as well as city schools.

Statistics show that only about four per cent of the school children need to be excluded in any one year on account of contagious diseases, while fifty to sixty per cent of the children suffer from non-contagious physical defects which interfere more or less seriously with educational procedure, and which need to be taken into account by school authorities. All need instruction in personal hygiene to enable them to take proper care of their health. Health thus properly becomes an educational problem, and one not likely to be dealt with in any effective manner except by the educational authorities. The problem is how best to conserve the child's native physical vigor and to overcome, as far as possible, his hereditary or acquired physical deficiencies, not only that his progress in school may be normal, but that he may develop into a strong and sound human being, knowing how to care for himself.

Scope of the work. A system of school health supervision has a much larger function, then, than the mere detection of disease, though this should, of course, be a part of its work. A much larger field of service lies in the detection of physical defects, in securing the coöperation of the parents in the treatment of these defects, in finding and ameliorating bad home conditions which are interfering with the health and normal school progress of the children, in coöperating with the school architect and sanitary engineers in securing hygienic conditions in the school plant, in eliminating existing conditions which are unsanitary, or which tend to increase physical defects in school children, in the hygienic supervision of school athletics and playground work, in assisting teachers in hygiene-teaching

in the schools, and in examining and advising teachers and janitors as to their personal health. To a large degree the school health service should aim to improve the health of the entire community, making the school a hygienic center as well as an educational one.

The work of health supervision in our schools is as yet, generally speaking, only in its beginnings, but that the service will be very materially extended in the future seems practically certain. The argument that it invades the rights of the home is on a par with the arguments against compulsory school attendance and prescribed courses of study. A generation ago compulsory school attendance was regarded as a meddlesome interference with the rights of parents to do with their children as they saw fit, and a million illiterate adults among us to-day stand as a witness to the value of such a theory. Still more, with the somewhat general ignorance on health questions on the part of otherwise intelligent parents, millions of adults stand to-day as physical witnesses of the neglect of parents in health matters. They are not physically what they might have been, and their children are weaker in consequence. The children of to-day represent the racial stock of to-morrow, and to conserve and to improve this racial stock along physical lines is as important a function of the State as to improve it along intellectual lines. We have long recognized the principle with reference to our crops and our live stock, and national and state governments have spent millions in improving grains and stocks and yields, but we have only recently begun to recognize that the same biological principles apply to the rearing of children that apply to the care of trees, grains, horses, cattle, hogs, and dogs.

Need for special facilities. Even after doctors and nurses have been employed, and even some specialists added, it has been found that the work is ineffective, with the children of

many parents, because of ignorance or poverty, or both. Sending a statement of physical defect to the home obtains results in but a very small percentage of cases — usually around five per cent. A visit by the school nurse to the home increases the percentage, but not to any high figure. Frequently the advice given cannot be acted on because there is no place in the community where treatment or correction can be given, or at least given at any price within the means of the parents. It has been found necessary, therefore, to provide school examination rooms, where parents can be present and be shown — always an advisable thing to do — and where minor treatments and operations can be made. For cities these clinic rooms are usually at a fixed place, and for county-unit school systems they are of the traveling type. To these clinics, presided over by doctor and nurse, are brought the children needing treatment¹ — usually conducted as a part of school routine.

School clinics are of several types. The most common is the dental clinic, for the treatment of teeth and gums. Others are for the accurate determination of eye defects, and the fitting of proper glasses. Still others deal with nose and throat, and remove adenoids and tonsils. In a few cases habit clinics, designed for the diagnosis and treatment of bad mental habits, have been provided.

There are other groups of children whose defects are of a type that call for slow and continued attention, rather than remedial dental, optical, or surgical treatment. These include the poorly nourished, the tuberculous, the deaf and semi-deaf, the blind and semi-blind, those with serious speech defects, and the seriously mentally-defective groups. For

¹ A number of instances have been reported, recently, where the school children, having learned the value of these clinics, have gathered papers and rags and given entertainments to raise funds to maintain free clinics for children suffering from remediable defects and too poor to pay.

the proper care, protection, and education of these groups special classes are necessary, where a routine suited to the peculiar needs of these children can be carried out. Teachers of special classes, then, must be added to the school physician, the school nurse, the school dentist, and the dental nurse or hygienist.

Need for health work in the schools. The army draft results at the time of the World War, based on the physical examination of 2,753,922 recruits, showed that 46.82 per cent of our young men, at the ages when they should be most nearly physically perfect, were handicapped by one or more physical defects, and that the defects were so serious in the case of 24.96 per cent that they were rejected absolutely for military service. Most of the other 21.86 per cent found with defects were given remedial treatment or placed in developmental battalions. That a still larger percentage of defects would have been found among our women of the same ages, had they been called up for service, can hardly be questioned. Such a condition, found at a time when this Nation was facing the greatest crisis ever faced by modern civilization, is a startling revelation of the results of the long neglect of the physical care of our youth by both parents and schools.

Skeletal and postural defects, such as spinal curvature, poor chest development, and flatfoot and other foot deformities were found with 18.6 per cent. Poor nutrition, carelessness and ignorance in the home, poorly fitting schoolroom furniture, improperly-fitted shoes, and the lack of proper physical-education activities could account for most of these cases. Hernia, found in 3.4 per cent of the men drafted, is largely preventable, and to some degree correctable, by proper physical exercises. The after effects of communicable or infectious diseases, such as organic heart disease, defective hearing, and tuberculosis were written

large (4 per cent) over these men. Heart defects, largely due to the lack of proper physical activity and the failure to remove diseased tonsils and teeth, were found in one man out of every hundred. Defective teeth were found in 5 per cent, poor eyesight in 9.3 per cent. Bad nose and throat conditions, infections, kidney trouble, and digestive trouble also had their place and proportion.

The results of examinations made by city and rural health surveys also reveal the need for health and physical-development service. Defective teeth, enlarged and diseased tonsils, adenoids, sinus trouble, defective eyesight, enlarged glands, ear defects, spinal curvature, goitre, undernourishment and malnutrition, anæmia, skin diseases, tuberculosis, and heart disorders are the most common physical defects found in the physical examination of school children. The toll that all these defects, if left uncorrected, take ¹ in after-school life is out of all proportion to what their correction would cost if taken in hand at the proper time.

School health work. A real health program in the schools calls for a physical examination of each child each year in the first three school grades, again in the fifth or sixth grade, and still again in the eighth or ninth grade. Further examinations in the high school come as a part of the work in physical training and the building of health habits there. In some cities an aim of an examination every year of the child's school life has been set up, but the plan given above will prove quite satisfactory. This examination should be a real health examination. It should include not only physical testing, but an examination into the child's health

¹ It has been estimated that one person in forty of the American people is sick every day in the year. School children lose approximately six days out of every one hundred because of illness. Herbert Hoover, when Secretary of Commerce, found, in his study of waste in industry, that the amount of preventable illness was costing the people of this Nation hundreds of millions of dollars annually.

habits, with emphasis first on the correction of defects, and then on habits in eating, sleeping, cleanliness, and fresh air, together with a personal program for the formation of proper health habits and the physical upbuilding of the child.¹

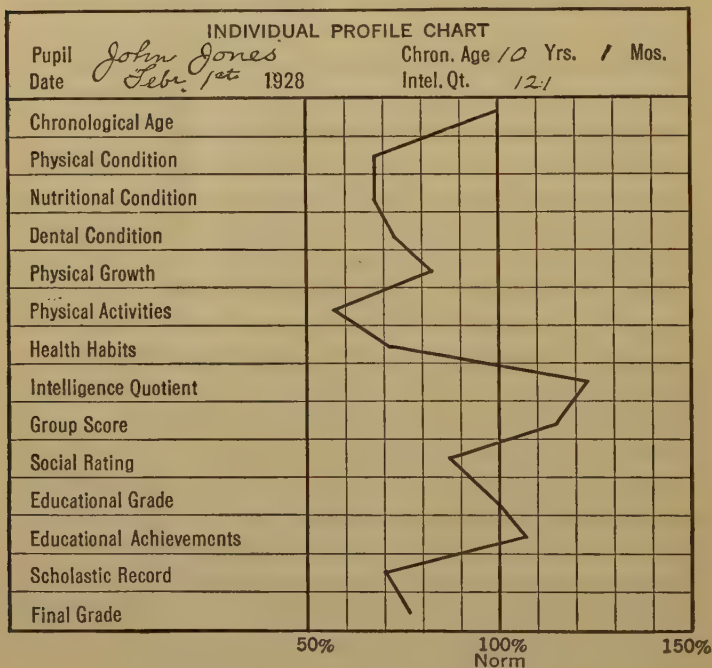


FIG. 60. WHY THIS BOY FAILED

To secure the largest possible percentage of correction, and to result in the formation of the right health habits, it is important that the parent be interested. To this end it is

¹ Speaking on child welfare, some years ago, President Hoover said: "If we would grapple with the whole child situation for one generation, our public health, economic efficiency, moral character, sanity, and the stability of our people would advance three generations in one."

desirable that the parent be present when the doctor and nurse examine the child, that the parent know both the nature and the consequences of the defects found, and be interested in seeing that they are corrected. The health and physical examination of a child, with the parent present, offers an excellent opportunity for instilling proper ideas as to physical care and health habits, in both child and parent.

A real health program in the schools also calls for a carefully unified program in education for health. The school should protect, correct, and prevent. This calls for a properly-built and a sanitary schoolhouse in which the child is compelled to go to school, and one of such a character that a well-balanced physical-education program may be carried out in it and on its grounds. There must be directed physical training, a proper place to play, something to play with, and such a program in physical education as will tend to correct defects and build up health habits that will last a lifetime. There must be a good system of health supervision, to replace the old "medical inspection," in which school physicians, nurses, and dentists work at the health development of the school children, the janitors, and the teachers. To teach the child to live healthfully, the health training and instruction given in the classrooms need to be coördinated with the other health and development work, emphasis should be placed on acts as well as on book knowledge, and the awakening of proper attitudes and the establishment of proper habits is essential. For some children nutrition classes will be needed, as well as training and instruction, if any satisfactory pupil progress is to be made.¹ The attitude, health, and knowledge of the teachers in the classrooms, who can do so much to assist by precept and example, also need to be looked after and coördinated into a unified plan.

¹ See "The Health School of Jacksonville, Illinois," by B. F. Shafer, in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. 25, pp. 191-96. (November, 1924.)

Control of the work. Medical inspection everywhere began as an extension of the work of boards of health, but in something over two thirds of the cities of the United States now supporting health work in the schools the service has since been placed under the control of the board of education; in approximately one quarter of the cities the authority is joint; and in but about one city in ten does the work still remain under the control of the board of health.

The chief arguments advanced for board of health control are that the board of health has police power for the control of contagious diseases, that the work can be coördinated better with other community health agencies, and that the health department can reach private as well as public schools. On the other hand, school health work, aside from the control of contagious diseases, has little in common with either city or state boards of health, and in all its other functions it can be handled best by school authorities. Even contagious diseases found in the school can best be excluded by the school and reported to the board of health, while the control over private schools is merely a matter of funds and legal authority. There is no reason why the public school health authorities should not exercise control over the health and physical development work of both private and parochial schools, and many reasons why they should.

For health and physical development work, any board of education staff that is even half way equipped for its work has better-developed machinery and a better technique than has the staff of a board of health.¹ Particularly is this true in the smaller cities and in rural districts. Parents are more coöperative with board-of-education control, and the teacher

¹ It may be stated as a fundamental educational concept that all the activities of the school should be under school control. This is necessary for any one activity, necessary also to prevent the other activities of the school being interfered with, and necessary to insure their proper coördination with the new activity.

— a very important factor in the work — also can be brought into much better coöperative relations. Doctors and nurses coming into the school from the health department are less well received, too, than when they are a part of the school staff. A well-coördinated program for all the phases of health and development work, including athletics and the school program, can never be built up so well as under school control.

Boards of health tend too much to emphasize the mere prevention of disease; the interest of teachers and school officers is not usually enlisted to any great extent by such service; and the board of health physicians usually do not see the larger educational relationships, and in consequence of this and of their lack of both knowledge and authority they cannot prescribe the adjustments in educational processes which often are necessary to promote the health and growth-needs of the pupils.¹ There are, however, some instances of excellent work being carried on in the schools by boards of health, as well as some poor work done by school "health departments." Much depends, of course, upon the man who directs the work and his conceptions as to its nature and scope. Still, notwithstanding exceptions to the statement, there can no longer be any question but that the health supervision of schools in our American cities should be conducted by a health department, organized as a part of the educational system and service of the city.²

¹ "While it is possible for the work to be efficiently carried on by a board of health, it is extremely unlikely that it will be. The board of health lacks the educational point of view, usually makes the work curative rather than preventative, neglects the so-called 'minor' forms of defectiveness, makes the school service a side issue of the public health work, and fails to secure the maximum coöperation from teachers and parents." (*Portland School Survey Report*, chap. xiv, p. 349.)

² In practically all European States, where health supervision began much earlier than with us, control has always rested with the educational authorities.

Keene has well stated the difference when he writes:¹

The relative aims of the health department and the board of education are fundamentally different. The vision of the health department looks toward the detection and segregation of communicable diseases, the detection of physical defects, and the statistical bearing of these defects. The educational department has a more fundamental vision, looking toward prevention and upbuilding, working through such fundamental school means as habit-formation, exercise, cleanliness, healthful surroundings, ventilation, rest, recreation, nutrition, growth, protection, checking school retardation, correction of physical defects, hygienic program arrangement, and education through organized physical activities.

Place in the educational organization. A department of health and physical welfare should be one of the principal departments of a large city school system, as is shown in Figure 21, and should be under the supervisory control of a Director of School Health. The work represents a new technical field, requires expert direction, and the expertness of the department naturally should be respected in its administration. Only to the superintendent of schools, as the coördinating head of the whole school organization, should the department be subject and responsible.² Under the director of this department should be the physicians, specialists, and nurses employed, and he should direct their work. He should also have partial supervision of the work done in the clinics, in the open-air schools, the classes for physical defectives, the playground work, and the health teaching

¹ Keene, Chas. H.: *The Physical Welfare of the School Child*, p. 105.

² This responsibility to the educational department is important, for in many matters there must be coördination of the work. In case of conflict an appeal would naturally lie to the board of education. There ought, however, to be little cause for conflict. A medical director will find that he must work largely through the superintendent, principals, and teachers, and if he is reasonable and helpful and does not meddle too much with the work of instruction, he will secure the hearty coöperation of the members of the educational department.

in the schools. The clinical psychologist and the health director also should work in close coöperation. All candidates for positions as teachers or janitors should be examined physically and approved by him before employment, and those in service should have the right to seek the advice of the department in physical matters. With the teacher so vital a part of a school-health program, and the cost for teacher absences due to illness so important an item, boards of education would find it a good investment to provide free health advice for all teachers employed.¹

Types of health work organization. Three types of health supervision may be considered as feasible, namely: (1) well-developed departments of health supervision and physical welfare, with an adequately equipped staff; (2) smaller or partially-developed undertakings, using a whole-time or part-time physician, and a few nurses; (3) in still smaller cities, where a nurse and the teachers do all of the health work.

1. *The large-city plan.* A city of fifty to sixty thousand school children should have at least the following staff: ²

One chief health director, giving his entire time to the work. This person should be a physician who has a special interest in and adaptability for work with school children.

One general medical officer.

One eye, ear, nose, and throat specialist.

One specialist in mental and nervous diseases, who is also experienced in psychological methods. This specialist

¹ A few cities have already done this, and find it both useful and economical.

² Adapted from Hoag and Terman's recommendations. They recommend a smaller staff of physicians (seven against the usual twelve for a city of such size), and more nurses than are usually found (usual ratio about one for 5000 children; desirable, one for every 1000 to 2000 children, depending somewhat upon social conditions). The nurse is in many ways more useful than the physician, and much cheaper.

would be closely associated in his work with the clinical psychologist.

One emergency physician.

One woman physician, in charge of high-school girls.

One dental specialist.

From twenty to forty school nurses, who visit rooms, observe pupils and sanitary conditions, make preliminary examinations of pupils, assist in the teaching of hygiene, visit the homes, and follow up cases to see that something is done when recommendations are made for treatment.

Numerous special classes for various types of handicapped children, under the direction of special teachers.

All physicians and specialists in a city of this size to be full-time workers, this being considered more desirable than part-time service.

In equipment there will be needed a central office, containing a general reception-room, examining-rooms, office, a laboratory equipped with medical and psychological apparatus, and a dental and a medical clinic. A health room in each large school building,¹ with some equipment for the use of physicians and nurses, for examinations and simple treatments, also is regarded as a necessity to-day, though not often found except in the newer buildings.

2. *A smaller-city plan.* Keene, a more recent writer, gives the following as minimum equipment for a city of thirty thousand population, and with approximately six thousand pupils enrolled in the schools.²

1. *Professional staff:*

One director of school health, a full-time physician, to have complete oversight of all work and staff members.

One school physician, on part-time basis.

¹ In the new buildings at Gary, Pittsburgh, and in a number of other places, a school-physician's room has been provided in each school building as much preferable to a series of central offices.

² Keene, Chas. H.: *The Physical Welfare of the School Child*, pp. 478-80.

Three full-time school nurses.

One part-time school dentist.

Two full-time dental hygienists.

One part-time specialist in speech defects.

2. *Physical-education staff:*

One supervisor of physical education, to be in charge of all physical-education activities, in elementary and secondary schools, and week-day and summer playgrounds.

One assistant supervisor, in charge of instruction by classroom teachers (1 for each 200).

Two instructors for the secondary school (1 for each 500 pupils).

One supervisor of health training and instruction, and including nutrition work.

3. *Special classes:*

Four for the mentally subnormal.

One for the semi-deaf and deaf.

One for the semi-sighted.

One nutrition class.

One open-air class.

3. *Partially developed city plans.* For the still smaller city, which does not feel that it can afford any elaborate staff, or a smaller city instituting the work for the first time, the plan of employing a part-time physician and a relatively large number of nurses (one for every thousand to eighteen hundred children, depending somewhat on social conditions and needs), or a staff of school nurses alone, is desirable. In many respects the school nurse excels the physician in detecting disease and defects, awakens less professional jealousy among doctors, gets better response from children and parents, and coöperates better with teachers and outside organizations. For fully ninety per cent of the usual defects of school children the properly trained school nurse can act as well as the school physician.¹ In beginning school health work in a city which has heretofore had no such service, the

¹ See chap. XI of the *Salt Lake City Survey Report* for interesting statistics as to the effectiveness of the school nurse.

trained school nurse offers the best means of making a start. Beginning with one or two school nurses, more will soon be needed, and the cases they cannot handle will soon demonstrate the need of a part-time school physician.

The cost for this work. When school health work first began, and the possibilities for usefulness of the work had not been revealed, and the 1913 dollar was the unit of purchasing power, a cost of from fifty cents to one dollar per pupil per year covered the second stage of the work then carried out, as described on page 606. As the larger possibilities of the work have since been revealed, and with the larger costs for salaries and all supplies since the World War, costs naturally have increased. From two to seven dollars per pupil per year, depending upon what is provided and attempted, represents present-day costs. For the full program for a city of 30,000 outlined above, Keene makes the following estimates as to costs:

WORK PROVIDED	PER-CAPITA RANGE
For the professional staff, from	\$1.68 to \$2.10 per pupil
For the physical-education work, from	1.38 to 2.17
For the special classes provided, from	2.55 to 2.63
Total costs, from	\$5.61 to \$7.00

The variations in costs are due to differences in the salaries paid for the work. In larger cities, the costs probably will be slightly lower, due to reduction in overhead expense. For a good county-unit town and rural health service, similar in character to that provided for the cities, Keene estimates an annual *per-capita* cost of from \$5.50 to \$6.00 per year. He then adds:

Expensive! Yes! It costs, per child enrolled in the schools, as much as smoking one ten-cent cigar a week, or going to a twenty-five-cent motion-picture show once a fortnight, or buying two gallons of twenty-four cent gasoline per month.

The cost under the nurse-alone plan, or nurses with a

part-time consulting physician, naturally is somewhat less than where a full-time medical service, as described above, is maintained, though it will not be markedly so if an adequate staff of nurses is provided.

The teacher and health service. We have not as yet realized the possibilities for utilizing the teacher in city health service, yet in any school system the effectiveness of any health service established will have to depend largely upon the intelligent coöperation of the teachers in the schools. They more than any one else are with the children, and they more than any one else have opportunities for observing the effects of instruction, nervousness, eye-strain, ear-discharge, deafness, and the first symptoms of contagious diseases. Without such coöperation of the teaching force health supervision is doomed either to failure or to an indifferent success. This is an additional reason why the control should rest with the school department, and not with the board of health.

The present condition, though, is that teachers know little as to the detection of diseases, common physical defects, the hygiene of growth, or preventive medical hygiene. Even good teachers are usually blind to all but the most common disorders, yet, under the direction of a school nurse or a health director, they can in time acquire marked skill in detecting the symptoms of common physical defects. However, unless the teacher's interest is enlisted and she is taught to observe, she is likely to remain blind to defects, leaving all such matters to the school physicians to look after while she attends to matters of instruction.

The simplest form of health service consists of training teachers to observe defects, teaching them to read the health index of children, and showing them how to make a health survey of the children in their schools.¹ Such work is

¹ Hoag and Terman, in their *Health Work in the Schools*, devote two

naturally elementary and preparatory, but it is of much value in training teachers to observe their children, in overcoming the common prejudice against physical examinations of children, in educating the public in matters of child hygiene and preventive medicine, and in awakening a community demand for a better system of health supervision. The next step is the employment of the school nurse, and then the school physician.

Importance of the service. The development of health work in connection with public education, during the past quarter of a century in particular in this country, and during the past half century in the more important nations of the civilized world, must be regarded as a phase of the important conservation movement which has recently arisen. We have of late directed new attention to the stoppage of waste, both in our natural and in our human resources, yet the great problem of national conservation is not so much soils or mines or forests or water-power, important as these may be, but the conservation of our national vitality. As a people we are beginning to see that we live for the generations that are to follow, as well as for ourselves of to-day. Evolution and biologic progress within recent years have brought this home to us. Eugenics has by now become a vital concern with us, but even with a clean pure blood stream much remains to be done to protect the health of the Nation.

The great masses of our people, though, up to the time of the World War, had not clearly conceived the idea, and not infrequently opposed well-meant attempts in this direction.

chapters to showing how this may be done. Chapter v, on "The Health Grading of School Children by Teachers," gives forms and blanks to be used and tells what to look for, while chapter vi, on "A Demonstration Clinic for Instruction in the Observation of Defects," gives a stenographic report of a clinic held for the instruction of teachers in examining children. These two chapters outline plans for such work in such a way as to make it possible to employ the method in small-town school systems.

The experiences of the World War taught us much, and placed a new value on human life, yet among the mass of our people there is still much ignorance as to health, disease, and hygienic laws. The annual loss to our people through preventable diseases and deaths is still appallingly large. To reduce such ignorance and waste is a national duty, and no agency of our society has such opportunities for usefulness in this direction as has the public school. It is, in fact, society's one important agency for improving the health of succeeding generations, and for reducing the present enormous human waste due to physical defects and disease.

This new work is of large importance, both for the improvement of society and the increased efficiency in instruction, and the future is almost certain to see it developed into one of the most important branches of our public school service.¹

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Explain the nature of the service to be rendered by a department of health supervision under each of the headings enumerated under "Scope of the work."
2. Maxwell states that health supervision reduces the cost of instruction, and thus saves instead of costs. Does this appeal to you as reasonable? Where would the reductions come in?
3. Any adequate system for health supervision in the schools will, almost of necessity, come to involve for some children (a) free dental work, (b) free spectacles, and (c) school feeding. Do

¹ "The fundamental method of adjusting the schools to the situation is, first, to get specialized intelligence at work on the problem; second, to study and investigate health needs of pupils and community; third, to study the relation of the school to other health agencies, in order to determine its supplemental function; and fourth, actively and energetically, with state aid and community coöperation, to go forward and make the health knowledge now possessed by the few the actual health practice of the many. Preventative medicine and preventative education must go hand in hand. The goal is economy, efficiency, national vitality, and national happiness." (L. W. Rapeer, in *Proceedings, N.E.A.*, 1913, p. 658.)

these seem to you to be legitimate consequences of free and compulsory education?

4. Are such services to children essentially different from the services rendered farmers by national and state agricultural departments?
5. Why is it easier to secure appropriations for improving grains and breeds of cattle and for eliminating diseases among animals than for improving the health of children?
6. How do you explain the intense resistance to health work in the schools, on the part of some people, when its benefits to the children are so manifest?
7. Just what do you understand to be meant by health habits? Illustrate.
8. State the importance of a close correlation of the physical-education activities of the pupils and the school health service.
9. A suit was brought recently in Cleveland, to stop the expenditure of public money on the board of education's mouth-hygiene program. On what conception of the educative process was this suit based?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Find the *per-capita* cost for health supervision of different types in different cities.
2. Find the *per-capita* cost for instruction, maintenance and equipment, and overhead (office and supervision) expenses in some city school system, and show what percentage of additional cost a satisfactory system of health supervision would add.
3. Investigate and report on:
 - (a) Open-air schools.
 - (b) School feeding.
 - (c) Dental clinics.
 - (d) Work of school nurses.
 - (e) Mortality rates of children in cities.
 - (f) Pre-school health work with children.
 - (g) Nutrition classes.

PROBLEMS

1. City A, with 400 teachers in the elementary school and 100 in the high school, allows all teachers ten days sick leave on full

pay each year. Statistics for last year showed that 25 per cent of the teachers took the ten days, 25 per cent had no sick leave, and the remainder averaged six days, the distribution being the same for both types of schools. The average salary paid was \$180 per month in elementary school, and \$200 a month in high school. It is now proposed to extend the school health service to all teachers, free, and to provide free health advice and service, and one free call, by nurse or physician, on every teacher reporting sick. The added cost, based on last year's figures, for added service needed will be approximately \$8000. Will the service pay for itself, in any way?

2. In City B, the city health department provides the health service, devoting part time of one physician and full time of two nurses to the schools. B is a city of 20,000 inhabitants, with 4000 children in the schools. A city playground commission looks after the playgrounds, maintaining them only on Saturdays and during the summer vacation. What does this city lack, or need, to provide a good health service?
3. Plan an adequate health service, for some city you know, and estimate its total and per-pupil cost.

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CHAPTER XXX

RECORDS, REPORTS, AND PUBLICITY

1. *Records and reports*

Good records a necessity. From all that has been said so far it will be evident that good and accurate records as to the work of a school system are an increasing necessity. Census records, pupil records, teacher records, budget records, stores records, and detailed financial records are a necessity if the school system is to be conducted in the light of facts. Demands for funds, additional personnel, new buildings, supplies, and equipment must be based on definite records as to costs, balances, growth, and probable needs. Experting of the school system by an efficiency bureau is not possible without adequate and accurate records.

The effort to obtain adequate and uniform records for our schools may be said to date from the publication of the *Report of the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports*¹ in 1912. This committee recommended a series of forms and procedures which soon were adopted somewhat generally. The United States Bureau of Education, in particular, aided the movement by at once making use of the forms, and did much to secure the introduction of uniform accounting procedures in city school systems. Since the publication of this pioneer report much has been done, by many workers,

¹ Made by a committee of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, and published as Bulletin 3, 1912, of the United States Bureau of Education. 46 pp. This report has now been superseded by the later report of a new committee, appointed in 1925, and published in 1928 as *Research Bulletin*, vol. 5, no. 5, of the N.E.A., and entitled *School Records and Reports*. 122 pp.

to perfect complete systems of school and office records.¹ As a result the school record forms and accounting procedures of to-day are a great improvement over those in use a decade and a half ago. Yet to-day, in many of our school systems, record data are still being collected which are of little value, in their present form, except for purposes of complying with state requirements, while other data are collected which might be made of value if any one were to work them up and render them useful. In many cases, though, new record forms need to be installed and a new type of information collected. This new information relates to teachers, to pupils as individuals and as groups, and to the material and cost side of instruction. The nature of the data desired has been listed in the preceding chapters, but will be indicated somewhat further here. The proper collection of such data naturally involves some labor, and still more work to tabulate it and make it ready for use.

More clerical service needed. Every addition to the record forms used by school systems calls for more clerical assistance to gather, compile, and enter the needed data on the records, and then to make the organized results available for use with school board and public. Good clerical records call for the employment of clerks, and good financial records call for the employment of bookkeepers. Just as banks and business houses generally have greatly increased their clerical forces within recent years, and in consequence the scope and the accuracy and the usefulness of their records, so the school must increase the number of its clerical employees if it desires to possess records that will reveal the nature and the value of what is being done. In most city school systems to-day the percentage of total costs spent on "overhead"

¹ The leaders in this movement have been Professors George D. Strayer, and N. L. Englehardt, of Teachers College, Columbia University, and their students and associates.

is too small, and instead of trying to reduce overhead the school, in the interests of efficiency, should increase the percentage.¹ An overhead cost of 4.5 per cent to 5 per cent, for the larger cities, and 5 per cent to 7 per cent for smaller cities, is not an unreasonable expenditure, if modern-type records are to be kept and modern-type research work carried on.

It is not desirable to put more report work on teachers, though all efficiency records will involve teachers' coöperation, nor is it desirable to give principals more office work upon which to spend their time and energy. On the contrary, anything that can be done to take principals away from office work and put them into the work of helpful supervision is very desirable. Since more and better records and reports are desirable, however, and since such are necessary for efficient community service, an office clerk should be provided the principals in all school buildings of any size, to look after supplies, attend to the telephone, transact much of the business with casual callers, send notes as directed, check up records, fill out and transmit forms, write letters, and do the general routine office work of a school. The pressure then should be put upon the principals to get out of their offices and into the schoolrooms, and to extend helpful supervision to their teachers, instead of remaining in their offices and doing this clerical work.

Pupil records. A number of forms of pupil records should be kept. One card containing the school-census information will be necessary, and this should contain such data as was indicated in Chapter XXVIII, page 583. Once the pupil

¹ The average percentage of the total cost for school maintenance spent on overhead was 3.94 per cent for all cities of 100,000 inhabitants or over; 3.3 per cent for all cities of from 30,000 to 100,000; 4.2 per cent for all cities of 10,000 to 30,000; and 5.4 per cent for all cities of 2500 to 10,000, in 1925-26, the last year for which figures now are available. (United States Bureau of Education, *Statistical Circular*, no. 7, March, 1927.)

enters school there will be the Teacher's Register, in which daily attendance data will be recorded. Next will be needed certain individual pupil permanent and cumulative record cards, on which to make entries, from time to time, of important data relating to the child as he moves through the school system, the cards being, at the time he leaves the school, a complete record of his school history. These cards should include:

1. A general Cumulative Record Card, covering a rather complete brief story of the pupil's past school and home history.
2. A cumulative Health Record Card, containing physical data and records of physical examinations made.
3. A Psychological Clinic Record Card may be added, where more detailed information is desired, at least as to certain children.

If the forms listed above are kept by the teacher (1), the health officer (2), or the psychological clinic (3), as usually is done, then the principal needs cards for his office that give him quickly obtainable and accurate information as to every pupil in his school. The principal's record cards will contain much the same data as 1, 2, and 3 above, and may even be duplicates of these. Generally, however, a somewhat different form is used.¹

The compilation of this pupil data into room, grade, school, and school-system data requires some clerical service, but there is every reason, drawn from the experience of the business world and from the experience of the cities which have collected and tabulated such information, to believe that the increased efficiency which will be made possible, and the increased knowledge as to means and ends and values which will result, will more than pay for the labor necessary to secure such data and make it of use.

¹ Samples of these record cards will be found reproduced in *School Records and Reports*, N.E.A., *Research Bulletin*, vol. 5, no. 5, 1928.

Personnel records. These relate to the employees of the school system — the instructional staff, the business and clerical staffs, the janitorial and engineering force, and the laborers. Particularly for the instructional staff are such records important, as they furnish the basic data upon which appointments and promotions may be made. The most important of the personnel records are:

1. The teacher's application blank.
2. The inquiry blank as to possible employees.
3. The teacher's cumulative history card.
4. The teacher's success, or rating, card.

The first calls for the information as to professional preparation, teaching experience, and other pertinent information which an applicant may be asked to supply. The second is an inquiry form to obtain confidential information as to the applicant from those most likely to know. The third records the teacher's professional history, and forms a cumulative service record. The fourth is an attempt at an evaluation of her professional services. Somewhat similar records can be put on file for any other type of public school employee. Of all these personnel records, the cumulative history card is the most important.

Financial records. Probably the most detailed records need to be kept of all final actions of the board of education, and of the various financial transactions of the school system. The first calls for a well-kept Minute Book, in which every action of the board is recorded. The second calls for a wide variety of forms and record books, that a complete history of every financial transaction may be recorded and preserved.

First there is the annual budget of estimated income and proposed expenditures, and this calls for periodical budget statements which will show, by items, appropriations, expenditures, encumbrances, balances, and any transfers in

funds that may be approved by the board of education. For every purchase made there is needed a requisition¹ to

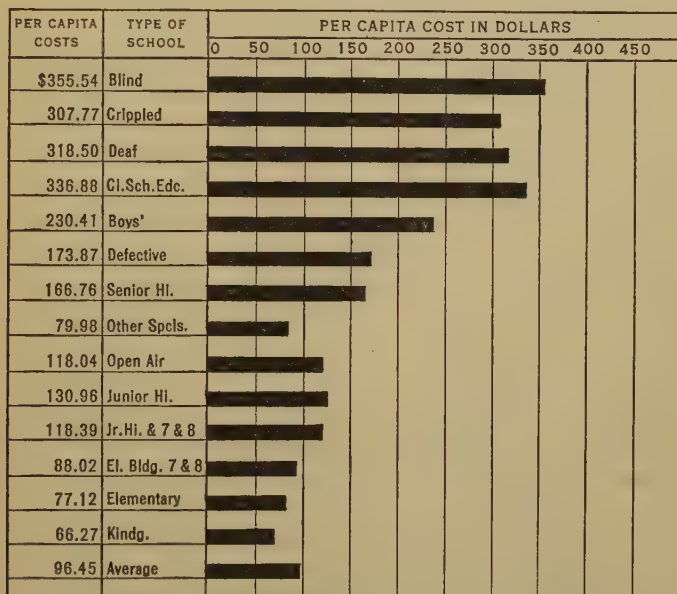


FIG. 61. DIFFERENTIATED COSTS, PER PUPIL ENROLLED, FOR DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Showing the results of a good system of cost accounting.
(Data for Cleveland, for a recent year.)

purchase, bid showing price, order to supply, bill for the goods, a voucher check to pay for the materials supplied, and a Voucher Register on which to distribute the item or items according to the nature of the expenditure. For the pay roll of employees a Salary Register is desirable, though

¹ Sample approved forms for all these accounting and registry items may be found in the N.E.A. *Research Bulletin*, vol. 5, no. 5, 1928, entitled *School Records and Reports*.

the Distribution Ledger may be used for this purpose. To provide for a proper distribution of all expenditures, under the proper accounting headings (see pages 548-49) and by types of schools, so as to be able at all times to determine instructional costs, a Distribution Ledger is needed. The Distribution Ledger has separate sheets for entries under the headings of personal service (salaries and wages), general control, instruction, operation, fixed charges, maintenance, auxiliary agencies, capital outlay, and debt service.

To maintain a proper record of the school district property and funds calls for Property Register sheets, Insurance Register sheets, Outstanding Indebtedness sheets, a Treasurer's Receipt Register, a Check Register book, and a Stores Register for supplies' inventory and record. Consolidated Balance Sheet forms, for compact brief monthly statements of financial position, also are needed.

In a small city school system some of these forms may be combined and the accounting simplified, but essentially the same type of accounting data are needed for all types of city school systems.

School-system records. Our school authorities are not likely to know too much about what they are doing, or what the work attempted is costing. Such information should be tabulated and charted, and made as useful and intelligible as possible. Much of the material collected will be capable of graphic representation, and the presentation of facts in graphic form always will prove helpful and stimulating. The use of such graphic data in the form of charts, lantern slides, and cuts in school printed matter and the press should prove of much use in educating the public. Few cities make adequate use of such worked-up data with regard to their schools, though many other city departments prepare and present such graphic evidence as to the effectiveness and usefulness of what they are doing.

At public-welfare, public-service, and other municipal exhibits, one usually finds much of this graphic work showing what is being done by city park boards, city health boards, water commissions, tenement-house commissioners, milk inspectors, hospital service, charity commissions, and playground commissions, but often little or nothing is shown with reference to the work of the public schools. These departments, boards, and commissions have learned that the best appeal to the public is made through the eye, and the constantly increasing funds voted for these purposes in our cities is evidence as to the effectiveness of such appeal. It is important that our school officials learn their methods and adopt the same practices.

2. Reports to the public

The annual school report. Practically the only means adopted by the schools in the past to inform and enlist the interest of the public has been the issuance of a printed school report, but with the advent of high printing costs following the World War the issuance of such reports has diminished markedly. Many city school systems and most county-unit school systems to-day do not issue a printed report of any kind, depending wholly on such newspaper publicity as is obtainable.

An examination of hundreds of the older type of printed school reports shows how painfully inadequate many of those issued were. Too often they were not reports to the public at all, but rather a mechanical record of certain facts relating to the formal operation of the school system, and they gave no evidence of having been prepared for any other purpose. Sometimes they contain but a few pages of report proper, the great bulk being given over to printing a course of study, or the rules and regulations of the school board. Sometimes these reports were issued biennially instead of annually,

sometimes only occasionally, and not infrequently not at all.¹ In some of our States it seems to be the habit for the school authorities to publish little or nothing.

Probably no greater mistake can be made by a superintendent of schools or by a school board than to omit entirely the publication of some form of an annual report, covering the work, progress, and need of the schools, and with such charts and interpreted statistical information as may be necessary to prove their progress and performances and needs. An annual printed report² is an effective means for informing the public as to what is being done, and of stimulating a public interest in seeing that the needs of the schools are provided for. Such a report forms an important means of communication between the superintendent and the board on the one hand, and the public on the other. In dealing with the council, if the council is the tax-levying power, or with the public if the school board determines the school-tax rate, a printed report can be made to form a most effective bulwark in support of continued requests for larger funds.

Effective presentation of information. A school report, if it is to be read and understood, must present its information in a simple, effective manner. The usual "collection of cold, conventional facts, loosely arranged and presented in a

¹ The habit of publishing a report or not seems to have run by States and sections. For the North-Atlantic group of States one can still secure annual reports for practically all cities, while for many Middle Western cities it has for long been difficult to secure any printed reports. Indiana cities have been particularly remiss in this particular, and an examination of the salaries paid Indiana city superintendents and a tabulation of the frequency of change of positions, causes one to wonder if there is not a close correlation between the low salaries paid and the insecure tenure, and the failure of the superintendents to tell their communities the nature and importance of their services.

² An annual printed report should be required of all city school systems, by general state law.

purely formal manner, and without any indication of their vital relationship to the efficiency or growth of the educational system," will not bring much coöperation or response. Neither will it be read. Reports to the people about their schools must deal with children and their education. In these the people will be interested. The financial accounts usually are fairly well presented, but on the side of the educational accounts our school reports usually are weak. If our people seem to be slow in responding to the increasing and enlarging needs of our schools, it is in part due to the failure of our school authorities to render a proper accounting to the people of their educational stewardship of the children.

Upon the preparation of an annual school report a superintendent may well spend much of a month or so every school year. It is one of his important duties as superintendent. In a way he should be thinking of what he desires to say to the people as he goes about his work during the year, the final intensive work being merely the organization of the material he wishes to present. It will pay well to take time and pains to prepare a good report, and the money which the board spends in printing it will be money well spent.

The school newspaper. Instead of an annual printed report, or supplementary to such, a number of city school systems have, in recent years, begun the issuance of a four-to eight-page small-sized monthly newspaper, much like the "house organs" issued by many business corporations. These newspapers are paid for by the board of education, edited by the school staff, and are sent to all school patrons and to many citizens. Being small, in the nature of a newspaper, and containing interesting and illustrated short articles about the work of the schools, they are read in many homes where an Annual Report would be little more than glanced at.

As a supplementary form of school publicity the school newspaper is very valuable, though it does not take the place of an annual School Report. Each has a purpose of its own, and each supplements and reinforces the other. The school newspaper's prime purpose is to supply news and awaken interest, while the annual report discusses costs, needs, and policies. There are hundreds of occurrences and happenings and pieces of work done about a school system in the course of a year that have good news value, and, if the members of the school staff are possessed of the so-called "news sense," the school newspaper can be made attractive and interesting.

3. *School publicity*

A school publicity program. Every superintendent of schools, in a city of any size, should think out and put into effect some form of a school publicity program, and covering both school publications and the local press. The items of interest about a school are largely seasonal; consequently a school publicity calendar can be drawn up and news events anticipated and prepared. The schools need a well-thought-out program of continued publicity, rather than a deluge of it only at times when the schools need a tax increase or desire to "put over" a bond issue.

The press, usually, is willing to help in the matter if the right type of news is supplied. The responsibility for the right interpretation of the schools to the public, however, rests with the schools rather than with the press. If the schools desire more school news in the papers they must help gather and organize that news. Here again the final responsibility for proper publicity rests with the superintendent of schools and his staff, aided by principals and teachers, though the superintendent himself may do little or none of the work.

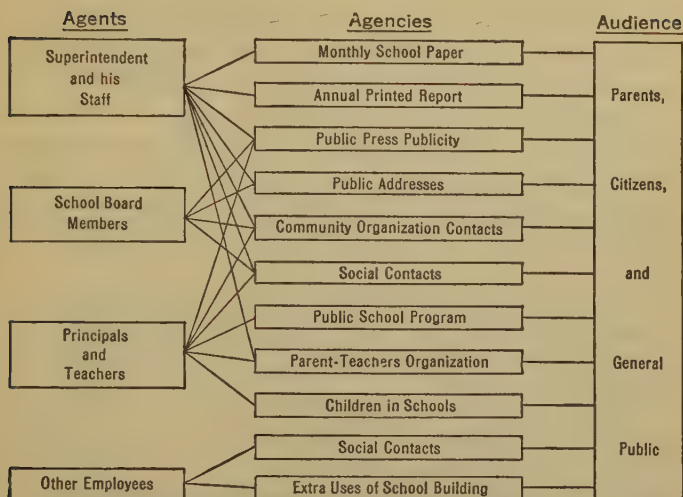


FIG. 62. AGENTS, AGENCIES, AND AUDIENCE IN A SCHOOL-PUBLICITY PROGRAM

(After Moehlman.)

The news supplied the press, too, need not be wholly or even largely of a spectacular type, such as football "dope," athletics, social happenings, or personals. Rather, instead, the school should try for news of a more informing type. There are good news values in ideas as well as in incidents, and in the creative work of the school as well as in its more spectacular happenings. To find such news, and to present it in a form and a language that the common man can understand, is a function of the publicity representatives of the school.

Publicity for a bond issue. When some special need for publicity arises, as when a bond issue is up, a well-organized publicity program should be thought out and carried out. The superintendent of one city of approximately 50,000 people, desiring to solve his growth and building problems

by the erection of two junior high schools and the reorganization of his schools on the 6-3-3 plan, organized his campaign on the basis of ten pieces of printed matter. These were printed in the high-school printing plant, each of the first seven on a different color of cheap paper, $7 \times 10\frac{1}{2}$ " in size, and the first seven of the ten, listed below were placed on all doorsteps, at intervals of a few days, by the high school students. The list of printed matter was:

1. *The city is growing.* Brief statements by the building inspector, health officer, telephone manager, postmaster, water-works manager, gas and electric manager, and secretary of the chamber of commerce.
2. *The schools are growing.* Statistics as to recent rapid growth, a graph showing growth by years, and what the growth meant in classrooms and teachers.
3. *Crowded condition of the schools.* Facts as to crowding and needs.
4. *Our school problem.* A compact six-page statement of the situation, and how a 6-3-3 reorganization would solve the problem.
5. *Who may vote, and where.* A map of city, with voting precincts described, and voting places located.
6. *Solution of the growth problem.* The junior high schools. What they will cost. What the bonds will cost.
7. *The schools need room.* An appeal to the voters for ten minutes of time, on election day, and a favorable vote.
Each of the above seven carried, at the bottom, the following appeal:

REMEMBER

MORE PEOPLE, MORE CHILDREN
MORE CHILDREN, MORE SCHOOLS
MORE SCHOOLS, MORE BUILDINGS
MORE BUILDINGS, MORE BONDS
Bond Election, Tuesday, October 30

8. Cards to be signed by citizens, reading:

"Believing in Education, I am in favor of the Bonds for Junior High Schools.

Signed_____

Address_____

Telephone Number_____"

9. Windshield stickers, reading, "Vote Yes, School Bonds, Election October 30."
10. Window cards, showing a ballot box, votes going into it, and reading, "We Endorse the Proposed Bond Issue for Junior High Schools, Election, October 30."

Importance of keeping the public informed. A policy of rapid expansion and increased expenditure is almost certain to end in disaster for the superintendent who is too busy making progress to take time to tell the people what he is doing, and why. Sure and permanent progress is made only when the people understand what is being done, and the reasons for the increased cost. The people need to be stimulated by their school officials to a desire for progress, and inspired with confidence that those who represent them are trustworthy and efficient. Only upon such confidence and coöperation can the work of public education long proceed.

Educational progress necessitates that our schools often must take a position in advance of the conceptions as to educational needs of the average intelligence of the community in which the schools are located, and it is important that the school authorities keep the people close to the schools. This means an entirely different thing from keeping the schools close to the people. The former calls for leadership and constructive statesmanship; the latter is the cry of the time-server and the man of little competence.

To "sell" one's educational ideas to the public is one of the many new functions of a superintendent of schools. While correct knowledge as to educational principles and procedures is of course fundamental, the ability to set forth

the results of procedures in easily understandable form is something that should not be underestimated. In doing this well organized statistical data and good graphic displays are of large value. Since a good graphic display tells so much, and is so much more condensed and effective than a verbal description or a statistical array, superintendents should use charts and graphs freely when talking to the public and in their publicity work.

In the process of "selling" educational ideas to the public mere assertion, personal opinion, and personal bias have little value. The public takes seriously only those arguments which are based on carefully-collected and well-interpreted facts. The average citizen knows but little as to the purposes, methods, and scope of modern education, and the growing complexity of our city life keeps parents from having much knowledge as to the schools in which their children are educated. The careful and the somewhat continuous presentation of well-organized facts and interesting news items, which reveal the work and purpose and methods of the school, constitute the chief means by which the public can be brought to feel that the school is serving fully the community that maintains it.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Explain why our schools were content to go along, until a couple of decades ago, without adequate or uniform records, when now they seem so important.
2. Why is it so hard to get boards of education to supply adequate clerical service?
3. Show the value, to a superintendent, of knowing all such cost items as are shown in Figure 61.
4. Similarly, show the value of records that show costs for supplies, heating, etc., by schools.
5. Is the publication of a House Organ a good expenditure for a school system? Would a bill-board advertisement of the public evening-school advantages be justifiable?

6. Why has school publicity recently become so important, when none of it was done a quarter of a century ago?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Pupil cumulative record cards, and their use.
2. Teacher inquiry and record forms.
3. Financial record forms.
4. Putting over a bond campaign, in some city.
5. Newspaper publicity work, in some city.
6. City school system "House Organs."
7. Continuous school publicity plans.
8. Character and value of the annual school report.

PROBLEMS

1. Suppose that a big bond issue for schools is before the people, and it seems necessary to arouse the community to avoid defeat. Draw up an organization chart, showing how you would organize committees, speakers, press work, and the different community forces so as to unify community thought and action behind the bonds.
2. Fill out the contents for each of the seven handbills, as described on page 640, as you would write them.
3. Work out a plan for organizing your publicity work, say as superintendent in a city of 20,000 inhabitants, where you must oversee all that is done, can't do much of the actual work yourself, and can't employ a publicity director.
4. Make up a school-publicity calendar, by months, to serve as a guide and reminder for your newspaper publicity work.

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PART III
CITY ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE APPLIED

CHAPTER XXXI

CITY ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE SUMMARIZED

As was stated in Chapter X to be our purpose, we have now considered, at some length, the principles underlying the proper organization and administration of school systems in city school districts. The administrative experience of the city school districts has been given, somewhat in detail, and the best principles of action which have been evolved during the past three-quarters of a century of conflict and progress have been set forth. We have devoted so much of our space to the problems of the city because the best that we have in administrative experience has taken place there, and it is from this city administrative experience that the great lessons as to the proper organization and administration of public education are to be drawn. In forms of organization, administration, supervision, equipment, and in the extension of educational advantages, it has been the city school district which has been the pioneer. Let us now briefly summarize this administrative experience, and then proceed to apply the best results of it to the problems of organization and administration of public education in our counties and in the State.

The city an educational unit. Perhaps the most distinctive feature of city school-district organization and administration is the unity of the work. Instead of being split up, as our counties are, into hundreds of little school districts, with separate boards of control and finance for each little school building, and with no unity of effort or purpose, the schools of a city school district, however large this city school district may be, are managed as a unit, and with

all the educational and financial advantages that come from unit control. One small central board and one administrative organization controls all the schools of the city school district, even though that city school district may contain a school population as large as is found in some of our States, and may expend an even greater sum for educational purposes. Early in their administrative history, as was pointed out in Chapter X, our cities abolished their district organizations, consolidated their schools under one board of control, and unified both the educational and the financial management of their schools. Much of the strength of our city school organizations to-day has come as a result of this wise early action; without this unification any substantial progress would have been impossible.¹

Everywhere to-day in our city school districts one finds this unified control, worked out of course more perfectly in some cities than in others, and with a resulting unity in management, finance, and educational purpose which is of much importance in the administration of public education. A small board, composed of representative citizens, oversees the administration of the entire city-district school system, though this school system often is much larger and costs much more to maintain than is true for the hundreds of little town and rural school systems, taken together, of the county in which the city is located.

Not only are these city school-district boards small, but, as we have shown, there has been a marked tendency,

¹ Had Chicago, for example, continued to follow the district system of organization for its schools, which it did up to 1853, when the different district schools of the city were consolidated into one city system and a superintendent of schools was first employed, there would be to-day hundreds of school boards in the city trying to do what one school board does now, with all of the attendant crossing of purposes, lack of unity of effort, and waste of funds. That the schools of Chicago would have made the progress they have made under unified control cannot seriously be believed by any one.

within recent decades, to reduce their size still further, to change their basis of election from wards to that of the city school district as a whole, to reduce the number of board committees or to abolish them entirely, to change these boards from executive into legislative bodies, and to transfer all executive functions to carefully selected and well-paid executive officers.

Administrative organization. In a rapidly increasing number of our cities the best principles of corporation control have been worked out and are being put into practice in the educational organization. In such cities the board of education for the city school district acts much as the board of directors for a business corporation — listening to reports as to the progress of the business, approving proposals as to extensions or changes in the nature of the business, deciding lines of policy to be followed, approving the budget for annual maintenance, and serving as a means of communication between the stockholders and the executive officers.

The executive officers are employed to discharge executive functions, and to these executive officers are given power and authority commensurate with the responsibilities of the positions they hold. The board of education hears reports, examines proposals, and legislates, while the executive officers execute the decrees of the board and supervise the details of the work of their administrative departments. Each executive officer, in any good city school organization, has been selected because of supposed competency to manage the work of his department, and without reference to such extraneous considerations as politics, residence, or local popularity; each is sustained in the administration of his department, so long as he shows grasp and competency and renders efficient service; and each is given control of the details of administration within his department, and is expected to know how to handle such as an expert in his

special field. The superintendent of schools, as the unifying head of all departments and the chief person responsible to the school board, oversees in a way the work of all other executive officers, and unifies the work of all about the central purpose for which the schools exist.

Diversity as a result of unity. Largely as a result of the unity effected in organization, administration, and finance, one finds in our city school districts a diversity in the educational facilities provided such as could not possibly be arranged for under any other than a centralized form of educational and financial management. Only as a result of a unification in organization and administration, on a rather large scale, can such specializations in school work be provided. All of the schools being under one board of education and one administrative and supervisory organization, it is possible to concentrate effort and to specialize production, by reason of this large-scale organization, to a degree that would be impossible under small units of organization and administration.

In the matter of the scope of the instruction provided, types and classes of schools, differentiations in the courses within the same school and in different schools, specializations in the work to meet varying individual needs, and in the degree of community service which is being rendered, our city school districts stand as excellent examples of the higher efficiency and larger service which result from a unification of educational effort on a rather large scale, and the selection of experts to handle the expert functions. Only under some form of large-scale educational organization could many of the important supplemental educational advantages, such as proper grading and promotion, special instruction and supervision, special-type schools, and health supervision, be provided for at all.

Teaching and supervisory organization. In teachers and

supervisory officers, too, the city school districts, due largely to the many educational advantages provided as a result of their large-scale organization and administration, have for long held a decided advantage over the towns and rural districts surrounding them. Not only have the city school districts paid better salaries, but they have also — largely as a result of their graded and specialized instruction, professional supervision, differentiated school work, larger opportunities for growth and promotion, better living conditions, and better tenure — been able to attract the better teachers and school officers of the State to their service. The normal schools and the teachers colleges of the State, too, have for long specialized on preparing their graduates for service in the graded work of the cities, and the colleges and universities have prepared teachers for the secondary schools which the cities have until recently provided almost alone. Grade meetings, local institutes, and professional reading have added to the opportunities for teachers to improve while in the service, and have increased the attractions which have made good teachers everywhere anxious to get into the city districts. So great has been the desire of teachers to get into the schools of the cities that city school authorities have been able to select, and often quite carefully, from among the great rush of those desiring city employment. The unified organization and administration of the schools of a large unit has been the chief reason why the city school districts have been able to extend these attractions to teachers and to supervisory officers.

As a result of this large-scale organization and administration, the cities have been able to provide carefully graded instruction, to select teachers for positions and to adjust them to the work to be done, to provide a supervising principal for every small group, to employ special teachers and supervisors for many of the subjects of instruction,

and to institute educational leadership often of a high order.

Business organization and finance. In business organization and in matters of finance, our city school districts have for long enjoyed exceptional advantages. These, too, have been in large part due to their unified organization and administration. Under any district or ward form of organization, some districts or wards would have been unable to provide in any satisfactory manner for the education of their children. With the whole city, and often extensions beyond the city as a school-district unit, for which educational facilities are provided and upon which taxes are laid by one administrative board, without reference to any other consideration than the needs and wealth of the city school district as a unit, a pooling of costs has been made possible which has resulted in the provision of uniform educational advantages for all, and without undue expense to any portion of the whole. A few mills of tax, levied equally on all the property of the school district, has provided good educational advantages and specialized instruction for all of the children of the large city-district unit, regardless of the wealth or lack of it in any portion of the city.

In buying supplies and in the erection and maintenance of the school buildings, further economies, both in cost price and in the utilization of material and buildings, have been made possible as a result of the large unit for educational organization and administration. If actual economies in unit costs are not effected, then a better type of supply or building, or more abundant materials for instruction, are provided for the same money. In concentrating business and clerical matters for a large number of schools in one place, marked economies in large-scale purchases may be made, clerical matters can be attended to better, and a better reporting as to costs is possible.

School plant development. In the development of a school plant in which a modern type of school curriculum may be taught, the cities have again excelled. Only in some of our modern consolidated-school districts do we find a type of school building that approaches what the cities have developed, in so far as adaptation to needs is concerned. While the rural district school building has been improved somewhat in the past two decades, taken as a type our rural school plant still remains but poorly adapted to educational needs. The cities still have many old and poorly adapted school buildings, yet the transformation that has been effected in the school plant of our cities within the past half century, and particularly within the past twenty to twenty-five years, is little short of remarkable. In our cities everywhere, in all parts of the United States, new school buildings, adapted to the teaching needs of a modern educational program, have been erected, and these are so different in character from the older type of school building as at once to attract attention and awaken interest and pride. A new elementary-school building of to-day is a vastly different building, in construction and arrangement and purpose, from a building rated as good a quarter of a century ago. The new-type elementary school, the new Gary and platoon-school buildings, the new junior-high-school buildings, and the new senior-high-school buildings are all contributions for which the city is almost entirely responsible. In adaptability, heating, lighting, ventilating, and sanitary arrangements they leave the rural and small-town school building far behind.

Again it has been the larger unit of organization which has made such buildings possible. If our little rural school districts were properly consolidated into county administrative units, and placed under unified control, a series of consolidated schools could be provided which would be for rural

children, needs considered, the equal of what city children to-day enjoy. The survival of the district unit of school organization, with its accompanying handfuls of children, inadequate finance, and lack of educational leadership, stands to-day as the most serious obstacle to the provision of adequate schoolhouses for rural children.

Health and physical welfare work. All statistical studies have shown the preponderance of physical defects among rural children, and it is a matter of common knowledge that a good health service is a crying need among rural people. It is the cities, however, which have made almost all the provisions that have been made for health and development work for their children. Even were rural people disposed to add such advantages to their educational system they could not do so, because the unit for providing it is too small. What the cities can provide with ease — health service, inspections, clinics, organized health instruction — the rural school districts cannot provide at all. Nor could the cities if their schools were organized as little community district schools, each under its separate board of school trustees.

Under a county unit of organization and administration, a good rural health and physical development service, with doctors and nurses and clinical facilities, could be provided easily and without undue cost. Large units of organization constitute the secret of the ability of the cities to provide a health and physical development service of large importance for the future welfare of their children, while small units of organization and political leadership largely explain why the rural districts cannot.

Initiative and educational progress. Perhaps, after all, one of the greatest advantages which the large city school districts have enjoyed has been in the high quality of training, leadership, and initiative which the city districts have

been able to bring into their service. Men who would not allow their names to be considered for political candidacy for a county superintendency have been quite willing to enter the city service as a teacher or a principal, and men to whom candidacy for the office of state superintendent of public instruction would offer no attraction have been willing to enter the service of the city as a superintendent of schools. The result has been that for three generations the cities have maintained almost a monopoly of the real leaders in educational administration in this country, with all the advantages that accrue to communities from intelligent leadership. It is not so much the character and training of the teaching force that tells, though these are important adjuncts, as it is the quality of leadership at the top. About a superintendent of schools, as has been said before, the schools in a way revolve. What he is by training, insight, initiative, character, and executive skill, the schools usually in time become; what he is not the schools usually plainly show.

Any form of educational organization that expects to be strong and to produce good results must keep the way clear for those of merit and capacity to rise to the top, and must place a premium on executive capacity and leadership. The heavy toll paid to-day by our county and state school systems, where a political rather than an educational basis for the selection of leaders prevails, and where a prohibitive protective tariff in the form of a local residence requirement is levied against brains and competency from outside, is as yet only partially appreciated by our people. The unmistakable administrative experience of our city school systems is that competency and politics seldom go hand in hand. An important element in the strength of our city school districts has been their freedom to go anywhere, and to offer any reasonable inducements in matters of salary or condi-

tions of service, to draw the type of man or woman desired for some form of special or executive work.

Clear and unmistakable lessons. The clear and unmistakable lessons to be drawn from a study of our city school-district administrative experience may be summarized very briefly as follows:

Large units for educational organization, and under small responsible legislative boards for school control; executive officers, carefully selected, retained on the basis of competency and executive skill, and clothed with power commensurate with their responsibilities; the provision of a specialized type of instruction, only possible under large units of organization and administration, with many differentiations to meet individual and community needs; carefully selected and placed teachers, under good educational supervision, and organized as a part of a large professional organization; business and clerical organization for large units, centralized under responsible administrative officers, with the elimination of the unintelligent service and waste that come from small-unit business transactions; large and specialized school buildings, well adapted to modern educational needs, and under competent care and supervision; the pooling of both the burdens and the advantages of education on a large scale, and with no excessive burdens or meager educational advantages for any part of the city school district; and, finally, by selecting its experts on a professional rather than a political basis, and with freedom to bargain anywhere for brains and competency, the provision for that leadership and directive insight at the top without which no school system can expect to prosper and develop along strong lines.

Having briefly summarized the lessons to be drawn from city-district administrative experience, let us now see in how far such principles may be applied to county and state educational organization.

CHAPTER XXXII

APPLICATION TO COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

City and county school administration contrasted. When we pass from a study of the best principles of educational organization and administration, as represented by our city school-district development, to the conditions existing in the counties of most of our States, the contrast is marked in all that relates to efficient educational organization and administration. In one half of our States (see map, page 64) the form of organization and administration in use is based on the school district as the administrative unit, and in a number of other States the township or some form of district grouping is in use. Instead of a county school system, analogous to a city school system in educational organization and administrative effectiveness, and which by analogy with all other forms of county public business we might expect to be the natural form, we find instead an unnecessarily large number of unnecessarily small administrative units, each under the administrative control of a local board of district trustees, and but loosely bound together in a county educational organization. In many of our States these district boards of trustees possess so much power, and the county superintendent such small power, that the county oversight exists largely in name. Often, too, these local boards of trustees carry on their work with so little unity of purpose and so little conception of the meaning of efficient educational service that the schools are inefficient, limited in scope and outlook, poorly adapted to modern educational needs, poorly taught and still more poorly supervised, and far more costly than there is any reason for their being.

District trustee control. Instead of the rural and village schools of a county being an educational unit, as is the case in the cities, the schools in the counties, with a few exceptions, represent a decentralization in educational administration which must inevitably result in an inefficient type of educational and community service. Instead of one board of education working at the problem, and producing a unified educational organization and educational administration for the whole county, we find from ten to twenty different boards in the township-system States, and from forty to two hundred different boards in the district-system States, each working at the problem in its own way. Between these different boards there is unity of purpose only in so far as it is imposed by the general school laws of the State, and by a very limited type of oversight which the county superintendent of schools is permitted to exercise.

Each board works at the problem in about the same limited way, and each produces about the same limited and unsatisfactory educational result. The schools lack in numbers, interest, and enthusiasm. The teachers often are inexperienced and poorly trained, and the conditions surrounding living in the districts and work in the district schools are not such as to retain for long the services of capable teachers. The supervision, in so far as it comes from the county, is clerical and statistical rather than personal and helpful; and in so far as it comes from the trustees it is unintelligent to a high degree. The schools are so small and so expensive, and the number of children tributary to each is so small, that no specialization of work is possible within the school. High-school advantages usually are entirely lacking, while coöperation for any other form of educational effort, such as district supervision, special teachers and instruction, health supervision, or an agricultural high school, is so difficult of attainment as to be practically impossible. Even

the consolidation of small districts to form larger consolidated graded schools, concerning the educational advantages of which so much has been written within the past quarter of a century, has been found to be almost impossible of attainment in the district-system States — due largely to the conservatism and inertia of these boards of district school trustees and the rural people whom they represent.¹

Financially the districts represent entirely too small a taxing area, and the cost for good rural schools is in consequence high. If any large dependence for support is made upon district taxation, the money provided for annual maintenance usually is so limited that only a poor and inadequate rural school, taught by a cheap teacher and offering a type of education but little suited to rural needs, can be maintained. The type of school building erected and maintained by these district school trustees too often is only a miserable makeshift, being cheap in construction, with poor lighting arrangements, no place for special types of work, and almost no sanitary arrangements.² The teaching supplies provided are often inadequate, and under the system of district purchasing are far more expensive than they should be. The many educational and financial advantages which the cities enjoy, due to their ability to shift books and teaching equipment from room to room and building to building,

¹ By a proper reorganization the schools of almost any rural county which is at all well settled could be taught better, by such a reorganization as is here proposed, and with a saving of from twenty to thirty-five per cent of the present number of teachers.

² "The rural school, from the standpoint of health and general fitness for its important use, is the worst type of building in the whole country, including not only all types of buildings used for human beings, but also those used for livestock and all domestic animals. Rural schools are, on the average, less adequate for their use than prisons, almshouses, stables, dairy barns, pig pens, chicken houses, or dog kennels are for their use." (T. D. Wood: "Child Welfare and Rural Schools"; in *School and Society*, vol. 2, p. 591. A report on existing conditions.)

are entirely lost to our rural schools under the district system of organization.

Need for a fundamental reorganization. The district system of organization and administration, and to a large extent the township system as well, is no longer adapted to meeting the educational needs of the present and the future. The advantages and disadvantages of both were described more at length in Chapter V, and the absolute inadequacy of the district system in particular, and to a certain extent the township system also, to provide a type of education for rural and village communities suited to modern educational needs was there pointed out. As a system of school organization the district unit has done its work, and it should be abandoned in favor of a unit more in harmony with modern business methods and one better calculated to serve the educational needs of rural people. Nothing short of a fundamental reorganization and redirection of rural and village education, and along lines dictated by the best of city administrative experience, can transform these schools into the type of educational and social institutions demanded by our present-day rural-life needs.

This, however, can be accomplished only by the application to the problem of a larger type of administrative organization and experience than that represented by district or township control. Rural and village education needs to be unified as to organization and administration, expanded in scope, and redirected and differentiated as to purpose, and this can be accomplished only by organizing with larger administrative units, and by placing our rural and village schools under some authority of larger grasp and insight than the district school trustee. The township unit is an improvement over the district unit for organization and maintenance, but for most purposes it is poorly adapted to community or administrative needs. A much better unit

is the county, which is used for almost all other forms of public business, and for which a more or less rudimentary form of educational organization already exists everywhere outside of Nevada and the six New England States. In these seven States, Delaware, and possibly in two or three other States, the State seems to be the probable future unit for all important administrative control. Elsewhere the county forms a natural administrative unit.

Rudimentary county-unit organizations. When we turn from the district or the township to the county, we find that the beginnings of a county unit for organization and administration have been made in most of our States by the

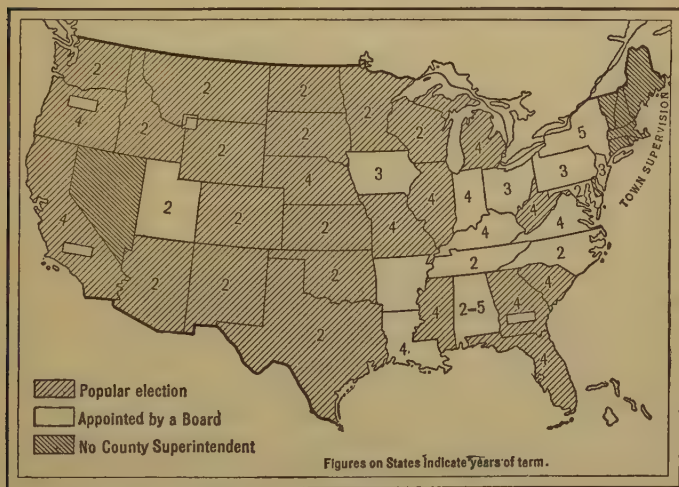


FIG. 63. METHOD USED FOR SECURING THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT, AND TERM

creation of the office of county superintendent of schools, and in some States a county board of education of some type also has been provided for. The evolution of such an offi-

cer and such boards was traced in Chapter IV, and some of the new demands upon them were there stated. These officers and boards represent the beginnings of county-unit organization and administration, but in most of our States, viewed from the standpoint of a good county-unit type of administrative control, they exist as yet as undeveloped and somewhat rudimentary offices and boards. The trouble lies in the fact that the county office so far has been political rather than educational in character, and that these county boards have not as yet become real governing educational bodies. Perhaps the most serious difficulty is to be found in the conditions which at present surround the county educational office.

The county superintendency. In twenty-five of the forty States having a county educational officer he still is elected by the people of the county, at popular elections, and from among the body of the local electorate. In fourteen of the twenty-five States he is elected for but two-year terms, and in two of the fourteen he is by the law or the constitution made ineligible for more than four years in the office. In other words, the county superintendent of schools, a person who by all analogy with city school-district administrative experience ought to enter the work as a life career, and with the idea of becoming a leader in his profession, is by the people of our counties still regarded merely as a political officer and clerk, and the old political principle of rotation in office is applied to the position.

Instead of each county selecting this officer in the markets of the whole Nation, as the cities do, so as to secure trained and experienced men for the work, the market is limited to each county, and the prospective superintendent instead hunts the office by means of a political campaign. He must first become a resident of the county and a voter, must then slowly work up in the party ranks and

make acquaintances, in order to get in line for the nomination, and then, if finally successful, must stump the county against an opponent, paying his political assessments and campaign expenses — always with the risk of defeat, and

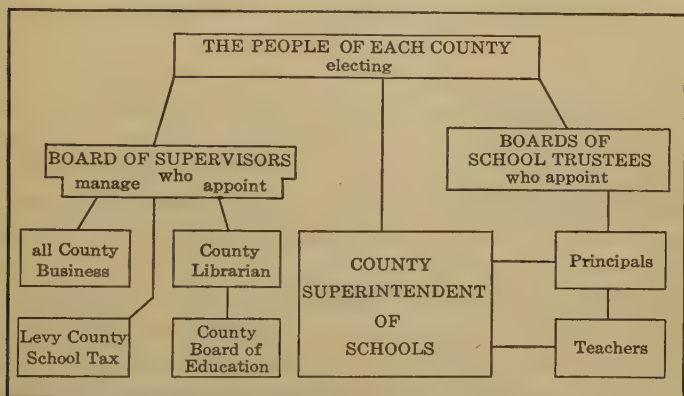


FIG. 64. THE USUAL TRIPLE-HEADED FORM OF COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND CONTROL

all for the sake of a temporary political job. In States where the primary has been introduced he must usually win two elections instead of one, and every alternate year must waste about six months of his time and possible educational efficiency. Few men worth employing at all for school work would think of hunting a job by such a method.

In addition to the bad method employed in the elective States to secure this officer, he is so limited in powers after he once secures the office that he can do little of importance. In practically all States employing the elective method the county superintendent is subject to a triple-headed county educational organization, as shown in Figure 64, that limits his ability to work and keeps him busy looking after his political fences. He soon sinks into a clerical and statistical and political county official, and gives up any attempt to do

much to try to improve the district and town schools of his county.

Why trained men go to the cities. It is not surprising that the office of county superintendent does not attract the best men in the teaching profession, and that but little progress in county educational organization and administration along sound lines has so far been made. Good men can sell their services in a better market. The low salaries paid, the expense of securing the office, the public notoriety, the humiliation of defeat, the short tenure of office, the high protective tariff levied against brains and competency from the outside by the local residence requirement, and the inability to accomplish much in States where the superintendent has the district system to deal with, all tend to keep the best men out of the office. The position of county superintendent of schools is one of much potential importance, but not until our counties do as our cities long ago did, and stop electing their superintendents by popular vote, can the office be made much more than a political job offering but temporary employment to the few men and women who are willing to consider political candidacy.

The clear and unmistakable lesson of our city school districts in the matter of employing school superintendents, and of all professional work and business enterprise in the matter of securing experts for any type of skilled work, is that thoroughly competent men are seldom secured by the political method. Before our communities can hope to have schools which for country and village children are as good as the cities provide for their children, they must provide some better plan for securing leaders for their educational service. Once take the office of county superintendent of schools out of politics, making it appointive instead of elective; once open it up to the competition of the whole country, as high-school principalships and city superintendencies have been;

and once base salary, tenure, and promotion on training, competency, and efficient service; and the office of county superintendent of schools will offer a career and an opportunity for constructive rural service for which a man or woman would be warranted in making long and careful preparation.

The way out. To provide properly for the administration of rural and village education, and to furnish the kind of instruction and supervision children in such schools ought to enjoy, demands that the lessons learned from a study of city school-district administrative experience be applied to the organization and administration of rural and village education. This demands the subordination of the district system, and probably the township system also; the erection of the county as the unit for school organization and administration, cities under city superintendents of schools being exempted from the county organization;¹ and the complete elimination of the curse of party politics from the management of the schools. Long ago our cities abolished their districts, began to manage their schools as a unit, and did away with the plan of selecting a superintendent from among the body of the electorate, and not until our counties introduce some such unit system into their educational organization can there be a proper and economical coördination in rural and village educational effort. For the pleasure of electing a horde of unnecessary trustees² and voting for another county officer, the people have, as a consequence,

¹ Another plan, tried in a few places, is to have the city board and superintendent include all of the county schools as a part of the city organization. Where the county is small this plan might work fairly satisfactorily, though where the city problems are large and important the tendency probably would be to neglect the rural problems.

² In some of the States of the upper Mississippi Valley, using the district system, from 30,000 to 45,000 district school trustees are elected by the people to control the schools employing but one third that number of teachers, and spending less for annual maintenance than is spent in a city such as Boston, which has a board of education of five.

an unnecessary number of small, costly, and inefficient rural schools, poorer teachers than is necessary, inadequate and often unsuitable instruction, and supervision that is usually little more than a name.

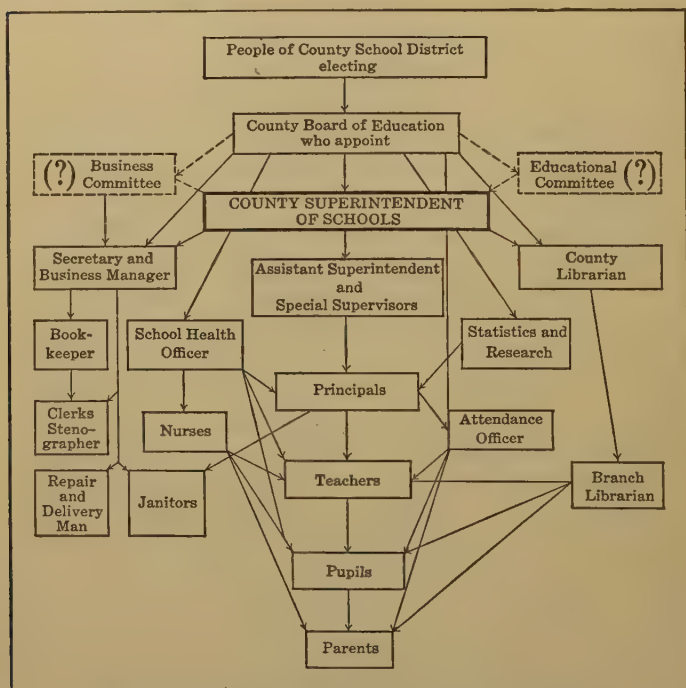


FIG. 65. COUNTY-UNIT EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

If our rural and village schools are to contribute anything worth while to the solution of our pressing rural-life problem, and to render any really worthy community service, rural school administration and supervision must be put on as high a professional plane as is city school administration and supervision. This demands a form of educa-

tional organization somewhat analogous to that developed as a result of fifty years of work on the problem of city school organization. This form of organization will be one small central county board of education, composed of laymen, to replace the many district school boards; the reorganization of the small, scattered, costly, and inefficient rural schools into a much smaller number of efficient, graded, and centrally located community-center schools, with high schools attached or accessible for all, and with instruction better suited to the needs of rural children; and the institution of a form of professional supervision that is as close and as effective as that which our city schools to-day enjoy. Such a plan involves a somewhat simple administrative reorganization in each county, and for such we have not only the example of our cities, but also excellent examples in the county-unit school systems of such States as Maryland, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and Utah.¹

Details of a county-unit plan. Good principles of educational organization and administration, as established by the experience of our cities, would indicate approximately the following as a desirable form for county educational reorganization:

I. General control.

1. The consolidation, for purposes of administration, of all schools in a county, outside of cities having city superintendents of schools, into one county school district.

¹ In Chapter X of the author's *Rural Life and Education*, drawings showing a number of counties before and after reorganization are given; Chapters IX and X of the author's *State School Administration* deal at length with the county-unit problem and forms of organization; while in Appendix D of the author's *State and County Educational Reorganization*, a county containing a city, five towns, and one hundred and three rural districts is shown in one drawing, and in another as reorganized into one city school district and one county-unit school district, the latter subdivided into fourteen attendance sub-districts, with a graded consolidated school and a partial or complete high school attached in each. Full statistics as to teachers, costs, and tax rates for this county also are given.

2. The election of a county board of education of five representative citizens, from the county at large and for five-year terms, the first board however to so classify themselves that the term of one shall expire each year thereafter. This board to occupy for the schools of the county approximately the same position as a city board of education does for a city.
3. Each county board of education to seek out and elect a well-trained professional expert to act as a county superintendent of schools, and to fix his salary. Such officer to enjoy approximately the same tenure, rights, and privileges as a city superintendent of schools, and to have somewhat analogous administrative and supervisory duties and responsibilities.
4. Each county board of education to hold title to all school property, outside of separately organized city school districts, with power to purchase, sell, build, repair, and insure school property.
5. Each county board of education to act also as the board of control for any county high schools, county vocational schools, county agricultural high schools, and the county library, and to have power to order established such types of special schools as may seem necessary or desirable.
6. Each county board of education to be directed to order a careful educational and social survey of its county, and upon the basis of such to proceed to reorganize the school system of the county by abolishing all unnecessary small schools, substituting therefor a few centrally located and graded consolidated schools, with partial or complete high schools attached, and to transport children to and from these central schools. Each such school and its tributary territory to be known as an attendance subdistrict, the bounds of which may be changed from time to time as in the case of city attendance lines.
7. Each county board of education to have power to appoint, either alone or in coöperation with a city school district, or some adjoining county school district, a school health officer, a school attendance officer, and such other special officers or supervisors of instruction as the educational needs of the county school district may seem to require, and to establish or join in the establishment of special-type schools.

II. Educational control.

1. Each county school district to be managed as an educational and financial unit by the county board of education and its executive officers. Cities contained within the county, which maintain a full elementary and secondary school system, employing a specified number of teachers and a city superintendent of schools, may ask for and obtain a separate educational organization, except that all general school laws of the State shall apply, and that the county school tax shall be levied uniformly on all property within the county.
2. On the recommendation of the county superintendent of schools, each county board of education is to appoint all principals and teachers for the different schools of the county, outside of the separately organized city school districts, and to fix and order paid their salaries.
3. On the recommendation of the county superintendent of schools, each county board of education is to approve the courses of study and textbooks to be used in the schools, the unit for the adoption of each being the unit of supervision.
4. Each county board of education to approve the employment of special teachers and supervisors for the schools, and, on recommendation of the county superintendent of schools, to appoint them, and to fix and order paid their salaries.
5. Each county board of education to have charge of the county library, and all of its branches, to appoint a county librarian and assistant librarians, and to provide for the care and development of the library and the circulation of books. The school libraries would become a part of the county library, and a branch library would be provided for in connection with most of the consolidated schools.

III. Business and clerical control.

1. Each county board of education shall appoint a secretary and business manager, who shall act as secretary for the board and shall have charge of the clerical, statistical, and financial work connected with the administration of the schools of the county school district. He is to approve all warrants drawn on the funds of the county, and to prepare

the financial and statistical portions of the required annual school report.

2. The secretary of the county board of education to have general charge of all purchases of supplies for the schools and the distribution of the same, and to have general oversight of all janitor service and repair work, except as otherwise provided for by the county board of education.
3. The secretary of each county board of education to be the custodian of all legal papers belonging to the county school district; to approve all bills and, when such have been ordered paid, to draw warrants for the same; to give all required notices; administer oaths; sign contracts as directed by the board; register all teachers' certificates; distribute blank forms; collect and tabulate the statistical returns; keep a complete set of books covering all financial transactions and all funds; and perform such other clerical and statistical functions as he may be directed to do.
4. Each county board of education to approve an annual budget of expenses for the schools of the county, both for school maintenance and for buildings and repairs, and may order levied, within certain legal limits, a county-school-district tax to supplement the funds received from the state school tax and the general county school tax, the latter to be levied on all property in the county and divided between the city school district or districts and the county school district on some equitable apportionment basis.¹
5. Each county treasurer to act as treasurer for all city or county school districts in his county, and to pay out all funds on the orders of the proper city or county school district authorities.

IV. Powers and duties of the superintendent.

In addition to the powers previously enumerated, the county superintendent of schools is:

¹ This greatly simplifies and equalizes taxation. Under such a plan there would be a state tax (or appropriation) for education, a general county school tax levied on all property in the county, and then such city-district or county-district taxes as may be needed to supplement the amounts received from state and county funds. The inequalities of the present small district taxation would be abolished, and a pooling of effort on a large scale substituted instead.

1. To act as the executive officer of the county board of education, and to execute, either in person or through subordinates, all educational policies decided upon by it.
2. To act as the chief educational officer in the county, and as the representative of the state educational authorities. To this end he shall see that the school laws of the State and the rules and regulations of the state board of education are carried out.
3. To have supervisory control of all schools and libraries under the county board of education, and general supervisory control of all officers in its employ (see Figure 65), with power to outline, direct, and coördinate their work, and, for cause, to recommend their dismissal.
4. To nominate for election, and when elected to assign, transfer, and suspend all teachers and principals, and, for cause, recommend the promotion or dismissal of such.
5. To visit the schools of the county, to advise and assist teachers and principals, to hold teachers' meetings and institutes, to direct the reading circle work in his county, and to labor in every practicable way to improve educational conditions within his county.
6. To act as the agent for the state department of education in the examining and certificating of teachers.
7. To oversee the preparation of the courses of study and to approve the same, to study the educational work done in the schools, and to approve for purchase all text and supplemental books and all apparatus and supplies.
8. To recommend changes in the distribution or the organization of the schools, to recommend the establishment of new schools or branch libraries, and to assist in the correlation of the work of the schools with that of the libraries, agricultural activities, and other forms of educational service.
9. To prepare and issue an annual printed report showing the work, progress, and needs of the schools of the county.

Such a reorganization not easy. To inaugurate such a reorganization will require that the methods of three generations and the selfish interests of individuals and communities shall be overcome. Such a fundamental

reorganization, too, cannot be expected to come through the voluntary coöperation of district authorities, upon which we have so far placed our chief hope. District authorities are too short-sighted, and know too little as to fundamental rural or educational needs. Neither can we expect much assistance from the average politically elected county superintendent. The system of which he is a product too often to him seems a sacred system, and, in the district-system States, he is too afraid of the enemies he may make in the districts, and the opportunities he may give an opponent to defeat him for reelection, to render much service looking to any fundamental reorganization of rural education. Too often he stands as the most serious obstacle to its realization.

Steps in the process. The necessary reorganizations are of such a fundamental character that they will have to be superimposed from above, sweeping away from before them the opposition of both county and district school officials. The State, in the exercise of its inherent right to demand constructive reforms, must demand a reorganization of rural education which will create a system adapted to modern rural educational needs, one under which business can be transacted in a modern manner, and one under which rapid progress along modern lines will be possible.

The steps in the process will, in all probability, be those we have just outlined. The district system of school organization and administration, with its horde of unintelligent trustees, will need to be swept aside for a county unit of school organization and administration. The many boards of district school trustees should be abolished. Lay county boards of education, elected by the people to represent them in matters of educational policy, procedure, and finance, should be provided to select the educational experts who are to organize and direct the new kind of county educational system; while county reorganization commissions

will be needed to study and map the counties and to prepare comprehensive reorganization plans, involving the counties as a whole, and providing for secondary as well as elementary education. After such plans have been approved by state authority, they should be ordered put into operation. Counties which refuse to reorganize their school systems on a proper educational basis, and to provide properly for the needs of their children, should be penalized by a reduction of the apportionment of state funds to no more than would be demanded for the same educational facilities now provided, if regrouped under a proper educational reorganization.

After a few years of operation under such a county-unit reorganization, each county would have a much smaller number of community-center consolidated schools, with partial or complete high schools attached, adequate and professional supervision and direction, and a new and effective type of rural education. What now seems so wonderful and so exceptional, when carried through here and there by some energetic and persuasive county superintendent, would then become the rule. The chief right of which the people of the rural districts would be deprived by such an interposition of the State would be the right to continue to mismanage the education of their children.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why is it that coöperation between district trustees is almost impossible to obtain for any improvement in educational organization?
2. What do you understand to be meant by a redirection of rural education?
3. What effect does the short tenure of office of county superintendents of schools have upon their independence?
4. What effect does election from among the body of the citizenship have upon the salaries of county superintendents?

5. Why is it impossible for the district system of organization to provide schools for rural children which will meet present-day rural educational needs?
6. Enumerate the advantages of a county unit in the matter of employing, placing, and paying teachers.
7. The larger cost for a good consolidated school often is urged as an objection. Which is the more expensive, a \$1200 school for an average daily attendance of 15, or a \$12,000 school for an average daily attendance of 130?
8. Why has school administration been so much slower in developing centralizing tendencies than other forms of county business?
9. Why do rural people cling so tenaciously to popular election as a means for securing the county superintendent of schools, when the experience in the selection of experts for almost all other forms of city and county business is against such a procedure? Do you think that the attitude of the county superintendent of schools has anything to do with shaping this rural attitude?
10. Some States have tried to improve the character of county superintendent elected by setting up professional qualifications for the office, but without much success. Why?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. Investigate and report on the plan of organization and working of the county-unit system in
 - (a) Maryland.
 - (b) Georgia.
 - (c) Utah.
 - (d) Louisiana.
 - (e) Florida.
 - (f) Tennessee.
2. Find how many district school trustees are needed for the schools in a number of the district-system States.
3. Collect the tax rates for the different school districts in some district-system county, and show the distribution in rates and in *per-capita* costs for schools in the county.
4. Investigate the statutory duties of the county superintendent of schools in your State, if a popular-election State, and list his duties under the headings: (a) Clerical, (b) Financial, and (c) Educational.
5. Analyze the arguments for and against the county-unit, as printed in the *Report, United States Commissioner of Education, 1914*, vol. 1, pp. 116-20, and state your conclusion.

PROBLEMS

1. Outline a rural-reorganization survey of some rural county, showing the plan of work and kind of information you would need, such as would have to be made by a county educational reorganization commission. (Williams's Survey forms a good type.)
2. From a study of the *School Codes* of the States, compare the legal, administrative, and supervisory organizations, and estimate the effectiveness of each, for any one of the following pairs of States:
 - (a) Kansas and Utah.
 - (b) California and Louisiana.
 - (c) Illinois and Ohio.
 - (d) Missouri and Maryland.

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CHAPTER XXXIII

APPLICATION TO STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

State educational organization undeveloped. When we pass from an examination of county educational organization to state educational organization, and examine such in the light of the best of our city administrative experience, we find conditions which, in most of our States, also call for a reorganization and redirection along better administrative lines. In most of our States the office of chief state educational officer is still in a markedly undeveloped condition, in character is statistical and clerical and political to a high degree, and the office has for long given evidence of but little of that educational statesmanship which is based only on a careful and an intelligent study of educational conditions and administrative needs. The state office, instead of leading the way, too often follows, and the thinking that is done as to state educational progress is done elsewhere. In consequence of this condition in the elective States, in but few of them does the state department of education or the office of state superintendent of public instruction exercise anything like the influence which ought to attach to such a department or officer.

The chief state school office. The chief trouble lies with the political conditions which have produced the superintendents and which surround their office. The plan of selecting the chief school officer for a State on a basis of partisan nomination and election, of limiting the choice to citizens of the State, of opening the position only to those willing to consider political candidacy for a poorly paid state

office, and of rotating the office around among the electorate at frequent intervals, has effectively prevented any large development of the office along sound administrative lines.

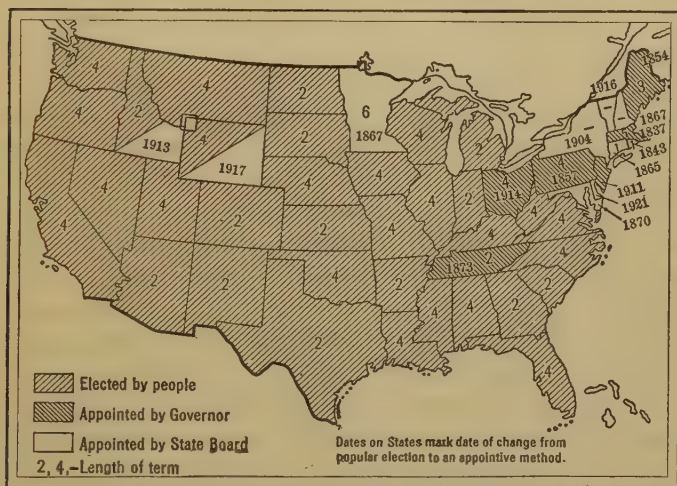


FIG. 66. METHODS USED FOR SECURING THE CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICER, AND TERM

The plan of nomination and election from among the body of the electorate tends, too, to bring to the front the old, ambitious, and reasonably successful practitioner — usually some county superintendent of schools who has worked up in the ranks and feels entitled to the higher office as a reward — but does not, except by rare chance, tend to secure the services of a professional expert and constructive leader, such as our state school systems are so much in need of to-day.

The political method has been discarded in the selection of all of the newer state experts — horticulturist, entomologist, mine examiner, geologist, health experts, sanitary ex-

perts, highway engineers, state architect, bank-examiner, and the various commission experts — and it should be discarded in the educational service also. The chief state educational office can never realize its possibilities nor enlist the services of the best prepared men until it is taken completely out from under the incubus of partisan politics, until the office is filled by appointment instead of by popular election, until this official is clothed with powers commensurate with the responsibilities of the position and freed from all forms of political interference, and until the office is free to seek the man without reference to any other condition than competency properly to fill the position. The clear and unmistakable lesson to be drawn from a study of city school administrative experience is that political nomination and election is not the way to secure competent leadership for so important an educational office.

Potential importance of the office. The chief educational office to-day, in most of our States, offers but few attractions to any one who is properly prepared for it, and the result of such a condition is written over the educational history, legislation, and administrative organization of most of our American States. While our cities have been making remarkable progress in organization and administration, and have been attracting to their service the best prepared men and women engaged in educational work, the chief state educational office has grown but little in importance, has commanded but little real influence in the State, has been given but limited powers by the legislature, and often has been avoided by the best-prepared men in the State. The office, at least potentially, as was stated in Chapter III, is a more important office than that of president of the state university of the State; that it is not such actually is a matter of common knowledge. In the light of the best of our city administrative experience, in the light of other state

experience with scientific experts and commissions, and in the light of the best corporation experience, it is evident that the office cannot hope to become one of large educational importance until it throws off the political incubus under which it still labors in nearly three fourths of our American States.

State departments of education. In Chapter III the evolution of the chief state educational officer and state boards for educational control were briefly traced, and some of the more important of the newer educational problems facing such officers and boards were stated. Most of the problems are of recent origin, and they are rapidly becoming more important. More and more as the school passes from a mere teaching institution to a constructive agent of democracy does the need for constructive leadership become increasingly evident. Some of our States are beginning to recognize this need and, within the past decade, a number of state educational reorganizations have been made the general tendency of which has been the development of stronger and better organized state departments of education.

Generally speaking, and taken as a whole, and disregarding individual exceptions, the tendency of these recent reorganizations has been to evolve a small appointed state board of education, for general educational control; to concentrate the different functions of educational control in this body, instead of in a number of state educational boards of various types; to eliminate *ex officio* boards and officers; to change the state school officer from an independently elected official to an executive officer of the state board of education, selected and appointed by it and responsible to it¹; to provide for the appointment of a num-

¹ In many of our States this is not possible without amending the state constitution, and in a number of the recent state educational reorganiza-

ber of educational experts, to supervise and administer different divisions of a state educational department; to clothe all of these officers with important powers and duties and responsibilities; and materially to enlarge the powers and duties of this state educational department in the administration and supervision of the school system of the State. In other words, the general tendency has been to apply to state educational organization and administration the fundamental principles of intelligent organization and administration so far evolved by our cities in the management of their schools.

Controlling principles. An application of the best principles of city school organization and administration, as well as the best principles of public service and corporation control, would seem to indicate the following as sound principles in the matter of state educational organization:

I. General control.

1. There should be a state board for educational control, consisting of a small number of representative citizens of the State, to be appointed by the governor and for relatively long terms. A board of five or seven or at most nine members, with the term of one expiring each year, or in the case of a large board two, represents in many respects a desirable form of organization.
2. In making appointments to such a board the sole basis for appointment should be the ability to serve the schools of the State, and without reference to such extraneous considerations as residence, party affiliation, race, sex, religious connections, or occupation.
3. There should be no *ex officio* members on the board. The general experience with such members is that they are not

tions such a change was not made largely because it was not at the time possible. In two States, Idaho and Wyoming, an appointed Commissioner, appointed by and responsible to the state board of education, has been provided for and placed side by side with the popularly elected State Superintendent, who continues to perform statistical and clerical duties.

- helpful, and not infrequently they interfere seriously with efficient administration. The governor, as the appointing power, and the superintendent of public instruction or his equivalent, as the executive officer of the board, should in no case be made members of it. The appointing power ought not to be represented on boards which it appoints.
4. Members of the state board should be paid their necessary traveling expenses in attending meetings, but should not be paid a *per diem* or any large yearly honorarium. The position should be a distinct honor, and not a political plum or a pin-money earner. A *per diem* always tends to too many and too long meetings.
 5. The most important function of a state board is the selection of its executive officers — the commissioner of education,¹ the assistant commissioners, secretary, business manager, and statistician. In making all such appointments the board should be free from all restrictions as to residence, party, race, sex, or occupation, their only purpose being to select the best persons obtainable for the money at hand. The board also should be as free to determine the qualifications, fix the salaries, and control the tenure of such officers as are boards of trustees of universities in the matter of their presidents and professors.
 6. It should be the prime function of such a board to hear reports and to consider recommendations from its executive officers, to determine policies, to direct that work be undertaken, to appropriate funds for specific purposes or undertakings, to stand as a buffer between its experts and criticism of proper actions, to approve a budget of expenditures and to ask the legislature for needed appropriations, and to recommend desirable legislation to the legislature.
 7. A clear distinction between what is legislative and hence a function of the board, and what is executive work and hence a function of its executive officers, should at all times be kept clearly in mind. It is primarily the business

¹ This title has been substituted for superintendent of public instruction, superintendent of education, secretary of the state board, or other equivalent title in all the recent reorganizations where the office has been made appointive by the state board of education.

of the board to legislate; it is primarily the business of the experts it employs to execute what has been decided upon.

II. Educational control.

1. Acting through its executive officers the state board should study the educational conditions and needs of the State, enforce the use of uniform records and reports, study the effect of the operation of the educational laws, recommend needed changes to the legislature, and so classify and standardize the educational work and institutions of the State as to promote their efficiency, harmonize educational interests, and prevent wasteful duplication of work.
2. Acting through its executive officers the state board should have general oversight and supervision of the administration of the public school system of the State, and should maintain constant studies of its operation with a view to its improvement. In doing so, however, both the board and its executive officers should keep clearly in mind that the prime purpose of state oversight is to improve the service of communities to the children under their control, and that state uniformity and obedience to rules and regulations are of far less importance than the stimulation of local initiative. Unity in essentials and much liberty in details, and the attainment of results rather than the following of any set plan, should be kept clearly in mind as aims in state educational control.
3. Acting through an examining division, the state board of education should approve regulations for the certification of all teachers for the schools of the State, and should standardize the professional, life, normal school, and college diplomas from other States in terms of the standards maintained within the State.
4. In coöperation with the state library, and as a board of control for such, the state board of education should aid in the establishment of county, school, and traveling libraries.
5. In coöperation with other departments of the state government, the state board of education should assist in the enforcement of the laws relating to schools, health, compulsory education, child labor, and child welfare throughout the State.

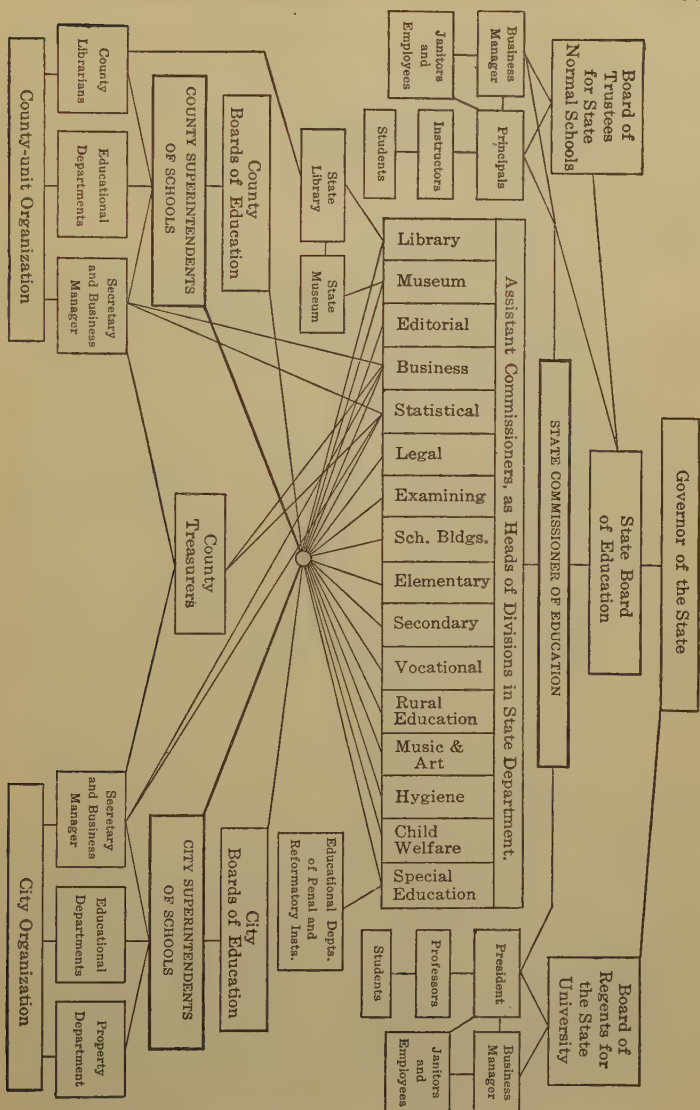


FIG. 67. A WELL-ORGANIZED STATE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT

6. Through a division of special education the state board of education should have supervisory control of the educational departments of all charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions maintained by the State, with power to make rules and regulations concerning the management of the same.

III. The chief state school officer.

1. As the chief executive officer of the state system of public instruction and of the state board of education, the commissioner of education should have power to see that the laws relating to education are enforced, and should be able to institute proceedings to give force to laws, or to rules and regulations or decisions made in conformity with law.
2. Acting through a legal division, the commissioner should have power to settle all controversies arising over any matter within the scope of the powers delegated by law to school authorities, and he should be the final authority in the interpretation of the meaning and intent of the school code, and methods of procedure under it.
3. Acting under his direction should be a number of assistants, as heads of divisions, each appointed upon his recommendation, as are heads of departments in a university upon the recommendation of the president, and each charged with certain duties and responsibilities.

The general scope, organization, and the channels of administration of such a state educational department are shown in Figure 67, on page 687.

Purpose of such an organization. The prime purpose of such an educational organization is the creation of a state department of education along the lines of the best of our administrative experience, one analogous in authority to our more recent creations in other branches of the state service, and one possessed of a sufficient number of trained workers to be able to evolve and carry out, over a considerable period of time, a wise, intelligent, and constructive state educational policy, based on a careful study of condi-

tions and needs within and the best of administrative practices without the State. The evolution of such a conscious constructive state educational policy, the awakening of support for it among the leading workers and citizens of the State, and the gradual carrying of it into effect is a service of prime educational importance. Such a state educational policy can be expected only as the result of long and careful thinking on the distinctively state educational problems which are to be enumerated a little further on.

Such a guiding state educational policy is seldom evident except where there has been capable and continuous leadership at the top, and it is here that our States have been especially weak. In the study of the educational history of our States there is little evidence, in most of them, of any well-thought-out educational policy carried out over any long period of time.¹ Legislation has been remedial and of a patch-work type, rather than constructively reorganizing, and the type of educational statesmanship described in Chapter XV has too often been conspicuous chiefly by its absence. There has been, instead, far too much of office regulation, strict construction of the law, dictation as to what must be done, and inspection, rather than helpful assistance, professional leadership, and constructive contributions to community effort.

¹ Of all our States, Massachusetts certainly stands forth as the one which shows most evidence of having followed, and for the longest time, a somewhat definite policy and plan in dealing with the cities and towns of the State. Much of the educational progress which Massachusetts has made, and made with little or no state aid to serve as a stimulus to action, and often in opposition to the strong conservatism of the towns, has been due to this relatively well-thought-out and consistently followed state educational policy, worked out by the eight carefully selected leaders who have served the State during the over ninety years since her state administrative history really began. The state board of education in Massachusetts has always appointed its chief executive officer; the State has never relied on the political parties to provide leaders for its school system. After Massachusetts, New York probably comes next.

State administrative problems. There are numerous distinctively state problems in the organization and administration of public education which should challenge the best thinking of the officers of a state educational department. All of these require careful study and years of wise educational direction before much in the line of visible results can be obtained. Some require a careful adjustment of state oversight to local conditions and needs. A mere enumeration of the more important of these is all that can be given here. To each, however, certain fundamental principles apply, and action taken contrary to these fundamental principles is action which sooner or later will need to be reversed.

These special state problems group themselves about the questions of the nature and extent of state oversight and control; the extension of educational advantages; proper methods in taxation, and in the apportionment of school funds; the provision of adequate professional supervision for all schools; the best subordinate unit or units for local control; the large social and educational problems surrounding the rural and the village school; industrial and vocational training; the material equipment of schools; health and sanitary control; the State and the teacher; the State and the child; and the relation of the State to non-state educational agencies.

Each of these major problems in state educational organization and administration deserves special study, and when clear and provable principles of action or standards of requirement have been formulated, such should be of much value in guiding state educational authorities in the administrative control of the school system of the State and in their dealings with subordinate administrative units. The solution for some of them will call for much adjustment to local needs, others will call for years of enlightened educa-

tional direction before much in visible results can be expected. To each, however, certain fundamental legislative and administrative principles apply.

The State to establish minima. There is a certain demarkation between the powers and duties of the State and the powers and duties of communities which ought to be observed in all educational legislation and all state administrative control. This line of demarkation will vary somewhat in the different States, according to the degree of educational progress already made and the peculiar genius of its institutions, and also with the type of subordinate administrative unit involved, but the line nevertheless exists in all. In many matters — such as the kind or kinds of schools which must or may be provided, the length of school term which must be maintained, the nature of the instruction, standards for the certification of teachers, school supervision to be required, sanitary standards to be maintained, equipment to be provided, rates and forms of taxation to be imposed, minimum salaries to be paid, compulsion of children to attend, and child-labor laws — it is essentially the duty and business of the State to determine the minimum standards which will be permitted, and perhaps to classify communities into groups and require different minima from each, but leaving to any community the right to exceed these minima if it desires to do so.

From time to time, as different educational needs and conditions may seem to require, it also is the business of the State to raise these minima for any or all of the groups, and in doing so the State should always act on the basis of what is best and now possible for the children of the State as a whole, rather than on the basis of what the poorer communities can do or provide. Certain communities can and ought to do more than others, and this should be kept clearly in mind by the State.

State stimulation *vs.* state uniformity. The common tendency toward an unnecessary state uniformity, which too often follows any centralization of authority and which is so stifling to community activity, should be carefully avoided by the State. To give large liberty to communities in non-essentials and in the choice of means and tools by means of which they will carry out the state purpose, and to free the larger and more progressive communities from a uniformity perhaps necessary for small and more backward communities, ought to be an essential feature in a wise state educational policy.

To keep the school systems of the different city and county units in touch with community needs and expressive of the best community wishes, and at the same time safeguard these school systems from direction by inefficient hands; to protect the schools from local exploitation and neglect, and at the same time preserve them from the deadening rule of a state bureaucracy; to leave to the city and county school districts as large liberty in matters of courses of study, textbooks, and methods of work as is consistent with the securing of the results desired by the State; and to see that the local school systems are adequately financed, instead of being subordinated to the more pressing demands of other city departments — these are problems of first importance in the relation of the State to its subordinate educational units. While avoiding bureaucracy and a deadening uniformity in non-essentials, the State, as the guardian of the educational rights of its future citizenship, must see that local governments and individuals do not override these for local or political or selfish ends.

It is of importance that a state department of education be a student of conditions and needs, and that it work constantly to stimulate communities to new and desirable activity. It is easy for state department officials to become

inspectors; it is much more difficult for them to rise to the higher levels of leadership. Yet this higher level of leadership is what a state department of education, as represented by its state board of education and all of its executive officers, should primarily represent. The State, in so far as it represents the interests of the education of its children and the improvement of society through public education, should become an active, energetic agent, working constantly and intelligently for the improvement of educational conditions throughout the State. For too long the State has been rather an interpreter of statutes, a collector of statistics as to what has been done, and a passive tax collector and distributor of funds to the different school districts. A study of the results of half a century of city administrative progress points out clearly the need of a different type of state educational organization to meet the needs of the future of public education in most of our American States.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the actual powers and duties of the chief school officer in your State?
2. What has been the average tenure of such official? The longest tenure?
3. Does the legislative history covering the past quarter-century in your State give evidence of a well-thought-out educational policy? Illustrate.
4. Enumerate the different bureaus, departments, and commissions in your State, which now employ expert service on the basis of training and competency.
5. Suppose that the president of the state university were elected by political nomination and election, and for two- or four-year terms from among the body of the citizenship, with the usual rotation in office, and that the professors were appointed from among the citizens prominent in the dominant political party. What would be the result on the university?

6. In the creation of new state commissioners and agents, as heads of divisions in the state department of education having elective state superintendents, why did we not provide for their selection also by popular election?
7. What is the objection to laws requiring the appointment, as members of state boards, of a woman, a representative of labor, or equal division among the two leading political parties?
8. What is the advantage in leaving the state board of education free to fix the salaries of all its experts, instead of fixing them in the law? Is there any reason why the best city administrative experience should not control here?
9. Contrast legislative and executive functions, with reference to state board control.
10. What are the advantages of making the state department of education a court of final appeal as to the meaning and intent of the school code?
11. Should a state board of education or a state department ever determine the courses of study for the schools of the State? Why?
12. Should the choice of textbooks be left to the different units for supervision in the State (city or county)? Why?
13. Why is it desirable that the state educational department should be given supervisory oversight of the educational departments of all charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions in the State?
14. Of the list of new problems in state organization and administration, listed on pages 690-92, how many have become important ones in your State?
15. Just what do you understand to be meant by the statements that:
 - (a) It is the duty of the State to impose minimum requirements?
 - (b) These must be imposed with the needs of the State, rather than individual communities in mind?
 - (c) Such imposition of minima often will involve reciprocal obligations on the part of the State?
 - (d) The State should be an active, energetic agent, working to improve educational conditions throughout the State?

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

1. The nature and extent of desirable state oversight and control.
2. To what extent should the State require the extension of educational advantages?
3. Best methods for school support, and the extent of desirable state aid.
4. Best methods for the apportionment of state and county school funds.
5. Nature and extent of state aid for secondary education.
6. Desirability of small subsidies in inaugurating new educational work.
7. Best method of securing professional supervision for rural and town schools, which shall be as close and effective as for city schools.
8. State control of the certification of teachers.
9. Certification of teachers by examination *vs.* training.
10. Desirability of a special certificate for all supervisors, and nature of the requirements for.
11. Desirable state encouragement of industrial and vocational training.
12. The degree of desirable state oversight of the material equipment of the schools, including school buildings
13. Same for health and sanitary control.
14. The state normal school and the training of teachers for the State.
15. The high-school teachers' training-class.
16. Desirability of requiring some form of state reading-circle work of all teachers.
17. The State and the teacher, as relates to salary control, tenure, and pensions.
18. The State as the guardian of the educational rights of children.
19. The State and non-state educational agencies.
20. State inspection and control *vs.* state leadership.
21. Desirable state minima.
22. Dangerous state uniformity.
23. State stimulation to new and desirable educational activity.
24. Contrast the powers and methods of securing progress for the state educational departments of New York and Massachusetts.
25. Draw up a desirable form of state educational organization for your State, and estimate its cost over and above the cost for the present organization.

PROBLEMS

1. Make a diagram to illustrate the form of state educational organization in your State, and determine the position of your State on the basis of the fundamental principles of state educational organization, as stated in the text.
2. Outline, in some detail, the nature of the work and the functions of any one of the divisions of a well-organized state educational department, as shown in Figure 67.
3. Read the article by Bobbitt on "Principles of State Educational Organization and Administration," and write a brief review of it in the light of the principles laid down in this chapter.

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